RIGDON'S GRAMMAR & LANGUAGE COURSE

GRAMMAR ESSENTIALS FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL

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GRAMMAR ESSENTIALS

FOR THE

HIGH SCHOOL

BY

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GRAMMAR ESSENTIALS
FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL.

INTRODUCTION.

1. Much of Grammar may be understood in the grades, some of it is sufficiently difficult to be interesting to college students, its essentials — all its general principles together with their applications — must be mastered in the high school.

2. It has been the aim to keep broadly at least within the title, — to set forth only the essentials. As to what these are there may be honest difference of opinion. In determining what are essentials, these four things have been kept in mind: (1) *The high school student must be able to point to principles* that will justify or condemn the English expressions in his own language and that of others. (2) *He must have such a mastery of the structure of the English sentence* as will enable him readily — almost unconsciously — to grasp its message wherever he meets it and in any of its various forms. (3) *He must master the terminology of the subject* so that, if necessary, he may take part in grammatical discussion, and also, that he may not be too greatly handicapped if he should undertake the study of another language, which always presupposes a mastery of the grammar of the mother tongue. (4) *The subject should be so presented that the student may achieve that mental discipline — thought*

efficiency — which the proper study of grammar so admirably imparts.

3. Unlike literature, grammar makes but slight appeal to the emotions; it lacks that largeness of conception to be had from history; it cannot develop the consecutive reasoning required in mathematics. Grammar, nevertheless, develops a form of thought efficiency that, in connection with those named above, is well worth while. It includes careful observation, accuracy and definiteness of conception or mental definition, close discrimination, mental alertness, ready inference, and a critical habit of mind, — helpful in all forms of investigation and indispensable in enabling one to take care of himself in discussion.

4. Teachers and advanced students wishing a more detailed discussion of the subject will find it in the *Grammar of the English Sentence*. Grade pupils for whom this book is too difficult will find a simpler and briefer presentation in Rigdon's *Grammar for the Grades, Books I and II.*

5. Two errors are common. One is the supposition that a mastery of the principles of grammar will of itself insure correct speech. It will not. It must be supplemented by reading good language and by hearing it spoken by others. And then in addition to this there must be a large share of pride in the ability to use correct language. Without this pride in correct speech, yes, unless one is ashamed to speak incorrectly, he may master the whole subject of grammar merely as an intellectual achievement without correcting any of his errors in language. The other error, infinitely more mischievous, is the claim that grammar plays no part whatever in one's ability to speak correctly. This contention is made by many newspaper editors, and is held as a theory by many educators who

have never taught school. They tell us to cultivate an ear for language. This is good, but not enough. Suppose one should hesitate — and who does not hesitate occasionally? — what is to determine his procedure? I answer, a grammatical principle. Why not let the ear decide by the sound? Ears are not all alike, and then two expressions may sound equally good when one of them is intolerable. Take the two expressions, *between you and me* and *between you and I.* Everybody knows that the wrong one is preferred by many cultivated ears. No one, so far as I know, advocates the teaching of music exclusively by ear; and yet there is much better reason for it than for teaching language exclusively by ear. No one ignorant of grammar can speak correctly and with assurance. He must always be the victim of uncertainty. When one is in doubt as to sentential form, only a grammatical principle can satisfy him.

THE DIVISIONS OF GRAMMAR.

6. Divisions of Grammar. — Since the sentence is made up of *words* which may have different *grammatical forms*, and be differently arranged with reference to one another, there arise two divisions of Grammar: *Etymology* and *Syntax.*

7. It appears, then, that Grammar has but two divisions: *Syntax* and *Grammatical Etymology.*

8. Syntax *is that division of Grammar which treats of the construction of the sentence.* It comprises *synthesis* and *analysis.*

9. Synthesis *is such a combination of parts as will form a sentence.*

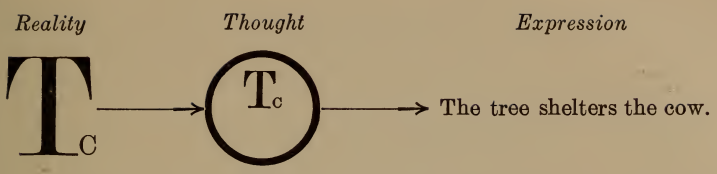
10. Analysis *is such a separation of the sentence as will show the relation of its parts.*

11. Grammatical Etymology *is that division of Grammar which treats of the classification, use, and properties of words.*

12. All Grammar is Technical. — Grammar is made up of facts, definitions, and principles or laws. These are always technical. By practical grammar is meant the application of principles to language. Language is the art of which grammar is the corresponding science.

13. Grammar and Literature are closely connected, but should not be taught together. Literature has to do with the general fitness of expression; grammar, with only one phase of this fitness, its correctness. Literature busies itself with æsthetic appreciation and presupposes grammar. Grammar may be learned very successfully in connection with literary selections, but it is always at the expense of the literature. Grammar should be a separate study, and should be well understood before much headway can be made in the way of literature. The consciousness that busies itself about formal correctness is antagonistic to that which seeks artistic appreciation. The order is, — *Language*, *Grammar*, *Literature*.

14. The Field of Grammar is the sentence. Sentences express thoughts, which we deal with in logic and psychology. Thoughts are about reality, which we study in physics, chemistry, physiology, geography, history, etc. Here are three closely related fields, which must be carefully distinguished. (1) There is the field of *reality*, the world of objects, which is altogether independent of our thinking. (2) There is the field of *thought*, occasioned by the reality but independent of its expression. (3) There is the field of *expression* or *language*, dependent upon thought, which in turn is dependent upon reality. Here it would be well for the pupils and teacher to give several specific illustrations of the three fields as distinct yet related.



15. For illustration, — and since we cannot bring real fields and trees and cattle into a book we are obliged to resort to illustration, — let us think of the large T to the left as a real tree and of C as a real cow receiving from the tree whatever protection she has from the weather. Here, then, we have two real objects in relation to each other. Now let the circle represent the consciousness of some person perceiving the relation of the tree and the cow. Let the Tc within the circle be his apprehension of the relation. This is a thought. **A thought** *is the mental representation of the relation of things.* Now, when this person has occasion to express his thought, the words to the right will be the result. They constitute a sentence. **A sentence** *is the expression of a thought.* Let each member of the class step to the board and give an illustration of the three fields, *Reality*, *Thought*, *Expression*, using different objects.

CAPITALS.

16. **A Capital Letter** should begin: —

(1) *The first word of every sentence.*
(2) *The first word of every line of poetry.*
(3) *The first word of every direct quotation.*
(4) *All proper nouns and proper adjectives.*
(5) *Names of things personified.*
(6) *Names of the days of the week, and of the months of the year; but not of the seasons.*
(7) *All words used as titles or particular names.*
(8) *Names of the Supreme Being.*
(9) *The pronoun I, the interjection O, and single letters forming abbreviations should be capitals.*

PUNCTUATION.

17. Punctuation *is the art of indicating the construction of the different parts of a sentence.*

18. A. **Terminal Marks.**

The period	(.)
The interrogation mark . .	(?)
The exclamation mark . .	(!)

19. The **Period** is used at the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence.

(*a*) The period is used within a sentence after all abbreviations, after any expression used as a heading, and after figures or letters used to mark the sections or parts of a production.

20. The **Interrogation Mark** is used at the end of an interrogative sentence.

(*a*) The interrogation mark may be used after any word in the sentence to denote uncertainty or to imply the opposite of what is expressed.

21. The **Exclamation Mark** is used at the end of an exclamatory sentence.

(*a*) It is often used within a sentence, after an interjection or any other exclamatory word.

22. B. **Marks used within the Sentence.**

The comma	(,)
The semicolon	(;)
The colon	(:)

(*a*) Only those most frequently used and only the principal uses of each are named here.

23. General Rule for the Comma. — Use a comma when the omission of it would render the construction of some part of the sentence obscure.

1. *To separate elements having the same construction:* —

Intelligence, integrity, industry, are the elements of success.

Our hopes and fears, pleasures and pains, make up the interesting side of life.

From night till morning, from morning till night, she whiled her miserable life away.

When I was a child, I spake as a child, I understood as a child, I thought as a child.

EXCEPTION. — When two elements are closely connected by a conjunction, no comma is needed; as, "Learning expands and elevates the mind."

2. *To set off appositive, explanatory, parenthetical, or introductory words, phrases, or clauses:* —

Dickens, the great novelist, is a teacher of human nature.

The mind, which studies all things, should study itself most.

He who can think, and all can do that, need not be lonely.

To speak plainly, I do not care to associate with him.

3. *To mark the omission of a verb:* —

The wise man considers what he wants; the fool, what he abounds in.

24. General Rule for the Semicolon. — *Use a semicolon between elements less closely connected than those separated by a comma.*

It is the first point of wisdom to avoid evil; the second, to make it good.

Improve every minute; for time lost is lost forever.

25. General Rule for Colon. — *The colon is used to precede a supplemental or explanatory remark.*

I admire the sublime passage: "God said let there be light, and there was light."

26. Exercises in Punctuation and Capitalization.

I. *Observe closely the capitals and punctuation of everything you read.*

II. *Punctuate and capitalize correctly every sentence you write.*

27. Impression and Expression. — Through contact with nature and our associates we are constantly receiving *impressions*. As a result of our social natures we wish to impart these to other persons. We do it chiefly through the medium of language, and the process by which it is

done is *expression*. Impression must always be in advance, but expression should follow close behind. The two are complementary processes and should be developed together. *Expression without impression is impossible, and impression without expression is worthless.*

28. The **unit of language** is the portion of it that is necessary to express a thought. It is called a sentence. *A* **sentence** *is the expression of a thought.*

29. This is the order: (1) Two things must be in relation. This is a *reality*. (2) Some mind may apprehend this relation. This is a *thought*. (3) Then the thought may be expressed in language. This expression is a *sentence*.

30. For illustration, a pig may be in the pantry, — a *reality*. The cook's apprehension of the situation is a *thought*. The expression of this apprehension so that another may grasp the situation — "A pig is in the pantry" — is a sentence. *Let the class give other illustrations of these three steps.*

31. Parts of a Sentence. — It may readily be seen that every sentence includes (1) the part that expresses what the predication (affirmation, assertion) is made about, and (2) the predication that is made. These are called respectively the *subject* and the *predicate*. Thus in, Mary writes, *Mary* is the *subject*, and *writes* is the *predicate*.

32. The predicate always has a double function, — (1) *copulative* by which it connects to the subject an attributive element, and (2) *attributive* by which it expresses the attributive element that is joined to the subject. In the sentence, "Mary writes," both of these functions are performed by the word *writes;* but in the sentence, "Mary *is* a *writer*," the two functions of the predicate have separate words: *Mary* is the *subject; is*

writer is the *predicate*, of which *is* is the *copula* and *writer* is the *attribute*.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

33. By **parts of speech** *we mean classes of words according to their uses in sentences.*

34. Noun. — Words may be used to name objects ; as *Illinois*, *Mrs. Livermore*, *state*, *woman*, *city*, *Indianapolis*. These are **nouns.**

35. Pronoun. — Words may be used to designate objects without naming them ; as, *I*, *he*, *we*, *us*, *them*, *who*, *that*. These are **pronouns.**

36. Verb. — A large class of words is used to assert or assume attributes ; as, *is*, *run*, *are*, *sing*, *to be*, *to run*, *singing*. Such words are **verbs.**

37. Adjective. — Again it may be necessary to express attributes without asserting, assuming, or naming them ; as, *good*, *old*, *beautiful*, *several*. These are **adjectives.**

38. Adverb. — Other words express attributes of attributes or a mode of mental connection ; as, *rapidly*, *slowly*, *certainly*. All such words are **adverbs.**

39. Preposition. — Other words express relation without either asserting or assuming it and exert a governing power over nouns and pronouns called their objects ; as, *by*, *on*, *to*, *with*, *between*. These words are **prepositions.**

40. Conjunction. — Another class of words, lacking such governing power, is used to express relation without asserting or assuming it ; as, *and*, *or*, *if*. Such words are **conjunctions.**

41. Interjection. — Then a final class of words is used to express the feelings that come in between our thoughts; as, *ah*, *oh*, *O*. These are **interjections.**

42. *A* **noun** *is the name of an object :* —

George is from the *state* of *Wyoming.*

43. *A* **pronoun** *is the part of speech that is used to designate objects without naming them:* —

He brought *it* for *us*.
Who is *he that* spoke to *her* about *me?*

44. *The* **verb** *is the part of speech that asserts or assumes attributes:* —

He *paints* pictures. He *is* a painter of pictures.
He *wishes* them *to be* happy. The boy *sitting* by you *is* Bob.

(*a*) Words that *assert* attributes are **finite verbs**; words that *assume* attributes are **infinitives** or **participles**.

45. *The* **adjective** *is the part of speech that expresses attributes without asserting, assuming, or naming them:* —

An industrious boy may accomplish *a difficult* task in *a short* time.

46. *The* **adverb** *is the part of speech that expresses either an attribute of an attribute or a mode of mental connection:* —

He came *slowly*. *Certainly*, he came.

(*a*) Adverbs commonly express attributes of attributes. Those that do may be called *common adverbs*. The few adverbs that express the mode of mental connection are called *modal adverbs*.

47. *The* **preposition** *is the part of speech that expresses relation without affirming it and exerts a governing power over nouns and pronouns:* —

He came *with* Paul and me. She spoke *to* Peter and us.

48. *The* **conjunction** *is the part of speech that lacks a governing power and expresses relation without asserting or assuming it:* —

Paul *and* I came with him. We spoke *but* she did not.

49. *The* **interjection** *is the part of speech that expresses feelings that come between or in connection with thoughts:* —

You are there. *Ha!* I shall go away.

PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

50. Property of a part of speech *is any modification of its force in the sentence.*

51. Person and **Number** are properties of *nouns*, *pronouns*, and *finite verbs*.

52. Gender and **Case** are properties of *nouns* and *pronouns*.

53. Voice, Mode, and **Tense** are properties of *verbs*.

(*a*) *Prepositions*, *conjunctions*, and *interjections* have no grammatical properties.

54. Inflection *is any variation in the form of a part of speech to denote grammatical property.* It may be (1) by a change in the ending, (2) by different words, (3) by the use of auxiliary verbs.

(*a*) Sometimes the property of a word is indicated by its position in the sentence.

(1) **Declension** *is inflection of nouns and pronouns.*
(2) **Comparison** *is inflection of adjectives and adverbs.*
(3) **Conjugation, Synopsis,** or **Inflection** *is of verbs.*

PARSING.

55. Parsing *is naming in order the part of speech to which a word belongs, its class, its properties, its construction, and the rule governing the construction.*

(*a*) **Parsing** is a good exercise for enabling us to distinguish the parts of speech and to determine their relation, but it should not be overdone to the neglect of more valuable exercises, such as the formation of original sentences to illustrate the different constructions.

(*b*) The **construction** of a word is its dependence upon some other word, its government.

56. For the abridged parsing of all the parts of speech this model will answer: (1) *Part of Speech*, (2) *Construction*, (3) *Rule*. For rules, see pages 152–154.

SUBJECTS, AGENTS; VERBS, ACTIONS; OBJECTS.

57. These distinctions are fundamental and must be carefully marked. In the sentence, *Martha broke the plate*, the word *broke* is the *verb*, its *subject* is the word *Martha*, and its *object* the word *plate*. It must be seen that this sentence refers to an *act*. The verb expresses the *act*, the *subject* of the verb expresses the *agent* (or *subject*) of the act, and the *object* of the verb expresses the *object* of the act. Again, the act is represented in thought. The *subject* of this thought is an idea of the agent, or real subject; the *object* of the thought is the idea of the object of the act, and the thought itself unites the two.

58. From this we see that we have *three kinds of subjects* and *three kinds of objects:* Subject and object of an *act*, subject and object of a *thought*, and subject and object of a *verb*. If our language is to be accurate, we must be sure in every case *what subject and what object* we are referring to. Also, we must be careful to distinguish (1) the *real action*, (2) the *thought activity* uniting the two ideas, and (3) the *verb*.

59. The object of a verb always expresses the object of an action; but as we shall better understand later, **the object of an action** is not always represented by the object of a verb, but sometimes by its subject; and **the agent of an action** is not always represented by the subject of a verb, but sometimes by the object of a preposition.

60. With reference to the statements made above, discuss the following sentences:—

(1) *Hazel lost* the *letter.*
(2) The *tree was struck* by *lightning.*
(3) *Jefferson* taught *Democracy.*
(4) The *house was built* by the *carpenter.*

PREDICATE-ATTRIBUTES AND OBJECTS.

61. Attribute, as a language term, is any *attributive expression;* that is, the expression of an attribute or group of attributes: —

The man is *honorable.*
The man is a *merchant.*

62. Object, as used in Grammar, is *any expression completing a transitive verb and denoting the recipient of an action.*

The man admires *honesty.*
We like the *merchant.*

63. *A* **Predicate-Attribute** *is any attributive expression that completes a copulative verb.*

64. *An* **Object** *is any expression that completes a transitive verb and denotes the recipient of an action.*

(*a*) **A predicate-attribute** is always an adjective or a noun, or an expression so used.

(*b*) **An object** is always a noun or an expression so used; that is, it is always a *substantive.*

65. *Distinguish the* **predicate-attributes** and **objects** *in,* —

(1) Truth is commendable.
(2) Tom is a horse.
(3) Tom has a horse.
(4) We are without money.
(5) It is surprising.
(6) He is surprising us.

COMPLEMENTS.

66. Observe the sentences, —

(1) The sun *shines.*
(2) Horses *help* **man.**
(3) The sun *is* a **planet.**
(4) The flowers *are* **beautiful.**

67. We shall find many verbs like *shines* in (1) that are complete in themselves; and many other verbs, like *help* in (2), *is* in (3), and *are* in (4), which require the addition of other words to complete them. Verbs are, therefore, **complete** or **incomplete.** Again we may see that some incomplete verbs like *help* in (2) are completed by **objects.** Other verbs, like those in (3) and (4), require **attributes** to complete them.

IMPORTANT DEFINITIONS.

68. (1) *A verb that represents the action of an agent as affecting an object is* **transitive.**

69. (2) *A verb that does not represent the action of an agent as affecting an object is* **intransitive.**

70. (3) *A verb that requires an attribute to complete it is* **copulative.**

71. (4) *A verb that does not require an attribute to complete it is* **attributive.**

72. (5) *Any expression that completes an incomplete verb is a* **complement.**

73. (6) *The attribute that completes a copulative verb is an* **attributive complement.**

74. (7) *The object that completes a transitive verb is an* **objective complement.**

75. *In the following sentences tell whether each verb is* **complete** *or* **incomplete, copulative** *or* **attributive, transitive** *or* **intransitive**; *designate each* **complement** *and* tell whether it is **objective** *or* **attributive.**

(1) The kittens *play*.
(2) Mr. Dickey *preaches*.
(3) He *builds* houses.
(4) His brother *is* a builder of railroads.
(5) He *believes* you are.
(6) Weakly children seldom *become* strong men.
(7) He *was elected* mayor.
(8) He *becomes* his position.

KINDS OF SENTENCES.

76. Observing the **attitude of our thoughts** toward the realities they represent, we see that some of them are *merely intellectual declarations*, some are *emotional connections*, some are *questions*, and others *represent real relations as not yet established, but to be requested or demanded of*

some agent. We have, therefore, **four kinds of sentences as to use.**

77. *A* **Declarative Sentence** *is one that merely affirms a relation;* as, —

John has a bird in his pocket.

78. *An* **Exclamatory Sentence** *is one that expresses the feeling aroused by apprehending a relation;* as, —

John has a bird in his pocket!

79. *An* **Interrogative Sentence** *is one that inquires as to the existence of a relation;* as, —

Has John a bird in his pocket?

80. *An* **Imperative Sentence** *is one that requests or demands the establishment of a relation;* as, —

John, have a bird in your pocket.

81. Observing also the **form of our thoughts,** some are *isolated* or *single*, others are closely *connected* but *coördinate*, and others are *dependent one upon another.* Their expression gives us **three kinds of sentences as to form.**

82. *A* **Simple Sentence** *is the expression of a single thought;* as, —

The flowers are fragrant.

83. *A* **Compound Sentence** *is one that expresses two or more connected but coördinate thoughts;* as, —

The flowers are fragrant and the rain has nourished them.

84. *A* **Complex Sentence** *is one that expresses a principal thought together with one or more subordinate thoughts depending upon it;* as, —

The flowers are fragrant because the rain has nourished them.

(*a*) In the last example, "The flowers are fragrant" expresses the principal thought, and "the rain has nourished them," the subordinate thought.

(*b*) In a complex sentence, the sentence expressing the

principal thought is called the **principal sentence**, and any one expressing a subordinate thought is a **subordinate sentence** or **clause.**

CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

85. (1) **As to Form:** —

(*a*) *Simple.* — Paul walks.
(*b*) *Compound.* — Paul walks and Peter rides.
(*c*) *Complex.* — Paul walks because Peter rides.

86. (2) **As to Use:** —

(*d*) *Declarative.* — The boys are honest.
(*e*) *Interrogative.* — Are the boys honest?
(*f*) *Exclamatory.* — The boys are honest!
(*g*) *Imperative.* — Boys, be honest.

87. *Classify each of the following sentences according to use:* —

(1) The last of all the bards was he.
(2) Slavery they can have anywhere.
(3) When should education be commenced?
(4) Stand by your convictions.
(5) What a contrast these boys present!

88. *Classify each of the following sentences according to form:* —

(1) In the sands of Africa and Arabia the camel is valuable.
(2) The gain is doubtful but the danger is certain.
(3) Let us live while we live.
(4) The harvest is plenteous, but the laborers are few.
(5) Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.

89. *Classify each of the following sentences according to both form and use:* —

(1) The decision of the judge increased the irritation of the people.
(2) A truly great man borrows no luster from splendid ancestry.
(3) Study to acquire a habit of accurate expression.
(4) He that is giddy thinks the world turns round.
(5) Forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors.
(6) Now stir the fire and close the shutters fast.
(7) It is one thing to be well informed; it is another to be wise.

(8) What thrilling experience this old oak might utter if it could speak!
(9) The song that moves a nation's heart is in itself a deed.
(10) It is good for a man that he bear the yoke in his youth.

90. *Write:* —

(1) three simple sentences.
(2) three compound sentences.
(3) three complex sentences.
(4) three declarative sentences.
(5) three interrogative sentences.
(6) three exclamatory sentences.
(7) three imperative sentences.

PHRASES.

91. *A* **Phrase** *is any group of words forming a modifier that is not a sentence;* as, —

"The history of *our country* is full of *thrilling events.*"

"The men came *with great clamor to drive* the wolves away *from the flock.*"

(*a*) Any part of speech together with its modifiers may properly be called a phrase, which is named from its chief word or basis. Thus according to basis we may have

a **noun phrase**, as, "*The little boy* cried";
a **verb phrase**, as, "George *stood by the old elm*";
an **adjective phrase**, as, "Grammar is *very interesting*";
an **adverbial phrase**, as, "We advance *very rapidly*";
an **infinitive phrase**, as "He likes *to walk rapidly*";
a **participial phrase**, as, "The dog *coming toward us* is Major";
a **prepositional phrase**, as "The captain stands *by his men.*"

We may even speak of

an **interjection phrase**, as, "*Alas for maiden*";
or a **conjunction phrase**, as, "John *as well as* Susan was mistaken."

(*b*) In the following classification only two kinds of phrases as to basis are considered, *prepositional* and *infinitive.*

(*c*) The word *modifier* is used in a very broad sense. Ordinarily we speak only of *adjective*, *adverbial*, and *objective* modifiers. In "Those bad boys tease us constantly," *bad* is an adjective modifier of *boys; us* and *constantly* are modifiers of *tease. Us* is objective, and *constantly*, adverbial. But we may as correctly say that a verb modifies its object

as that the object modifies its verb. When we say an object modifies its verb, we mean the object expresses the recipient of the verb's action; and to say a verb modifies its object means that it determines the case relation and often the form of its object. With equal correctness we may say a subject modifies its verb, and a verb modifies both its subject and its attributive complement. In "You are he," *you* determines the form of *are*, and *are* in turn determines the form of both *you* and *he*.

CLASSES OF PHRASES.

92. (1) **As to Form:** —

(*a*) *Simple.* — We left *in the evening.*

(*b*) *Compound.* — *To direct well and to do well* are different things. He came *in the morning, at noon, and at night.*

(*c*) *Complex.* — The kite flew *over the tops of the trees.*

93. (2) **As to Basis:** —

(*d*) *Prepositional.* — The city *of Brooklyn* is *in the state of New York.*

(*e*) *Infinitive.* — He came *to learn.* He asks permission *to remain.*

94. (3) **As to Use:** —

(*f*) *Adjective.* — The road *through the valley* is rough. All have the right *to vote.*

(*g*) *Adverbial.* — He does his work *with care.*

(*h*) *Substantive.* — *To forgive* is divine. He likes *to be let alone.*

95. *A* **Simple Phrase** *is a single phrase.*

96. *A* **Compound Phrase** *is one consisting of two or more coördinate phrases.*

97. *A* **Complex Phrase** *is one some modifier in which is a prepositional or infinitive phrase.*

98. *A* **Prepositional Phrase** *is one whose basis is a preposition and its object.*

99. *An* **Infinitive Phrase** *is one whose basis is an infinitive.*

100. *An* **Adjective Phrase** *is one used as an adjective.*

101. *An* **Adverbial Phrase** *is one used as an adverb.*

102. *A* **Substantive Phrase** *is one used as a noun.*

(*a*) A prepositional phrase is not often used substantively.

103. In the following sentences, classify each phrase, (1) *as to form*, (2) *as to basis*, and (3) *as to use*.

(1) To see is to believe.
(2) He came to learn and to improve his health.
(3) We do not wish to detract from your reputation.
(4) They have been invited to unite with our class.
(5) I got the information in the letter from your father.
(6) To succeed in covering up a fault is harder than to keep from committing it.

104. *Write sentences containing : —*

(1) three simple phrases,
(2) three compound phrases,
(3) three complex phrases,
(4) three prepositional phrases,
(5) three infinitive phrases,
(6) three adjective phrases,
(7) three adverbial phrases,
(8) three substantive phrases.

CLAUSES.

105. *A* **clause** *is any group of words forming a sentence that is used as a modifier ;* as, —

He came *when he was wanted.*
She said *that she was hungry.*
The horse *that died yesterday* was worth five thousand dollars.

(*a*) The word *clause* is often used as a synonym for *sentence*, but throughout this book it will be used in accordance with the definition given above, to signify *a subordinate sentence.*

(*b*) Be careful to distinguish a *phrase* from a *clause.* Both are modifiers. They are unlike in that a clause always contains a subject and predicate, while a phrase does not.

(*c*) A clause may contain a phrase, as in, "A house *that is set on a hill* cannot be hid"; or a phrase may contain a clause, as in, "We were talking *about how it happened.*"

CLASSES OF CLAUSES.

106. (1) **As to Form : —**

(*a*) *Simple. — That he was wrong* is evident.
(*b*) *Compound. — That he was wrong and that he knew it* is evident.
(*c*) *Complex. — That he was wrong when he said it* is evident.

107. As to Use: —

(*d*) *Adjective.* — Here is a boy *that is sick.*
(*e*) *Adverbial.* — He lies *where he fell.*
(*f*) *Substantive.* — He thinks *that I am not honest.*
How he did it is a mystery.
His motto is, *All men should work.*
His motto, *Most men may be trusted,* is a safe one.

108. *A* **Simple Clause** *is a single clause.*

109. *A* **Compound Clause** *is one consisting of two or more coördinate clauses.*

110. *A* **Complex Clause** *is one some modifier in which is a clause.*

111. *An* **Adjective Clause** *is one used as an adjective.*

112. *An* **Adverbial Clause** *is one used as an adverb.*

113. *A* **Substantive Clause** *is one used as a noun.*

114. In the following sentences classify each clause, (1) *as to form*, and (2) *as to use.*

(1) We must seek shelter, for the storm is near.
(2) They that are whole need not a physician.
(3) When I was a child I spoke as children speak.
(4) He is the gentleman that I met in Washington when I went to see you.
(5) That he should have failed when all the conditions were so favorable, is hard to understand.
(6) Who does not believe that he will do what he promises ?

115. *Write sentences containing: —*

(1) three simple clauses,
(2) three compound clauses,
(3) three complex clauses,
(4) three adjective clauses,
(5) three adverbial clauses,
(6) three substantive clauses.

WRITTEN REVIEW.

116. The pupil need not write the questions. Give each answer the same number that its question has.

117. In the use of this or any other book, the best results will be attained if the teacher uses his own judg-

ment as to what exercise shall be taken in whole, what in part, what supplemented by outside work, and what omitted altogether. Only this one suggestion is insisted upon: *Let every member of the class hand in a written answer to every question in every Review.* In no other way can the pupil master so much of grammar. Let every illustration be a sentence.

118. *All illustrations must be in original sentences.*

(1) Name four objects to be attained in the study of Grammar.

(2) Name two errors that are possible in one's attitude toward Grammar.

(3) What part of Grammar is technical?

(4) What can you say of the relation of Grammar to Literature? Should the two be taught together? Why?

(5) What is the *field of Grammar?* With what other fields is it closely connected? Show the connection by means of a specific example.

(6) Name 5 of the most important uses of *Capitals.* Illustrate each.

(7) State and illustrate 6 important rules of *Punctuation.*

(8) Define *Impression* and *Expression.* State their proper relation to each other.

(9) Define *a sentence*, and tell how it is the *unit of language.*

(10) Write what you think would be necessary to make the *definition of a sentence* clear to one who does not already understand it.

(11) Name and define the *essential parts of a sentence.* Illustrate.

(12) What are the *two functions of every predicate?* How may they be expressed?

(13) What is meant by a *part of speech?*

(14) Define each of the parts of speech. Illustrate.

(15) How are *nouns like pronouns?* How unlike?

(16) How are *nouns, pronouns, and adjectives alike?*

(17) How are *adjectives and adverbs alike?* How unlike?

(18) How are *verbs, adjectives, adverbs, nouns, and pronouns alike?* How do verbs differ from all the others?

(19) How are *verbs and prepositions alike?* How unlike?

(20) How are *verbs and conjunctions alike?* How unlike?

(21) How are *prepositions and conjunctions alike?* How unlike?

(22) How are *verbs like both prepositions and conjunctions?* How are verbs unlike both?

(23) Define *Inflection.* For what is each part of speech inflected?

(24) What is *Parsing?* Its *uses?* Its *abuses?*

(25) What is meant by *construction?* Illustrate.

(26) Distinguish: *subject of an act*, *subject of a thought*, *subject of a verb*; *object of an act*, *object of a thought*, *object of a verb*. Give clear illustrations.

(27) Distinguish: *a real relation*, *a thought relation*, and *a verbal relation*. Give clear illustrations.

(28) State the relation between: (*a*) *the object of a verb* and *the object of an action*; (*b*) *the subject of a verb* and *the subject* (*agent*) *of an action*. Illustrate.

(29) What is meant by *attribute* (or *predicate-attribute*) and *object* as grammatical terms? Illustrate.

(30) Define *complement*. Define and illustrate *two kinds of complements*.

(31) Define and illustrate: *transitive verb*, *intransitive verb*; *copulative verb*, *attributive verb*; *complete verb*, *incomplete verb*.

(32) Criticize: (*a*) *a transitive verb is one that governs an object*; (*b*) *an intransitive verb is one that does not govern an object*. Write a sentence containing *a transitive verb that does not govern an object*.

(33) Define and illustrate: *declarative sentence*, *exclamatory sentence*, *interrogative sentence*, *imperative sentence*. What is the basis of this classification?

(34) Define and illustrate: *simple sentence*, *compound sentence*, *complex sentence*. What is the basis of this classification?

(35) Write: (*a*) a simple declarative sentence; (*b*) a compound interrogative sentence; (*c*) a complex imperative sentence; (*d*) a complex exclamatory sentence; (*e*) a complex declarative sentence; (*f*) a complex interrogative sentence, — each about snakes.

(36) Define *a phrase*. Illustrate.

(37) Write a sentence containing: —

(*a*) A simple, prepositional, adjective phrase.
(*b*) A simple, prepositional, adverbial phrase.
(*c*) A simple, infinitive, adjective phrase.
(*d*) A simple, infinitive, adverbial phrase.
(*e*) A simple, infinitive, substantive phrase.
(*f*) A compound, prepositional, adverbial phrase.
(*g*) A compound, infinitive, substantive phrase.
(*h*) A complex, prepositional, adjective phrase.
(*i*) A complex, prepositional, adverbial phrase.
(*j*) A complex, infinitive, adjective phrase.
(*k*) A complex, infinitive, substantive phrase.
(*l*) A complex, infinitive, adverbial phrase.

(38) Define *a clause*. Illustrate.

(39) Write a sentence containing: —

(*a*) A simple adjective clause.
(*b*) A simple adverbial clause.
(*c*) A simple substantive clause.
(*d*) A compound adjective clause.
(*e*) A compound adverbial clause.
(*f*) A compound substantive clause.
(*g*) A complex adjective clause.
(*h*) A complex adverbial clause.
(*i*) A complex substantive clause.

(40) Write a sentence in which there is a simple adverbial clause containing a complex adjective phrase.

(41) Write a sentence in which there is a simple adverbial phrase containing a complex adjective clause.

(42) Name the *divisions of Grammar*. Define each.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

119. We have made a general examination of the sentence as a whole, its two essential parts, its kinds or classes, and have learned to distinguish the different **parts of speech** that form it. We are now ready to make a closer study of each of these eight parts of speech, and we shall begin with the **noun.**

THE NOUN.

120. A **Noun** *is the name of an object;* as, *Helen*, *Robert*, *Tolstoy*, *Detroit*, *salt*, *carpenter*, *ghost*, *drove*, *mind*, *feeling*, *William Jennings Bryan.*

(*a*) Any word, sign, phrase, or clause may be used substantively; as, +, −, ×, and ÷ are mathematical signs. But since they do not name objects, they are not nouns. They are rather objects or things than names. They are properly called *substantives.*

(*b*) A **substantive** *is any expression or thing that may stand in a sentence as the subject of a verb or in any other relation that a noun may have.*

(*c*) It will be seen that *substantives* include all nouns, pronouns, phrases, clauses, signs, and things that may occupy a noun relation. In the following sentences, all the italicized parts are substantives: —

(1) *John* likes the *man that* came with *us.*
(2) *Whom* do *you* wish *to spell and?*
(3) *To study* is *to learn.*
(4) *We* believe *he is industrious.*
(5) * is a reference *mark.*
(6) *Two* is not the same as *to.*

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

121. There are two ways of naming an object: (1) we may merely denote the class to which it belongs, or (2) we may distinguish it from others of its class.

122. Now, since there are two ways of naming an object, there are two corresponding **classes of nouns**, *common and proper.*

123. A **Common Noun** *is a name given to an object merely to denote the class to which it belongs;* as, *man*, *child*, *lawyer*, *river*, *tree.*

124. A **Proper Noun** *is a name given to an object to distinguish it from others of its class;* as, *Martin Luther*, *Ethel*, *Judge Royse*, *the Nile*, *the Charter Oak.*

(*a*) **A noun usually proper may become common** when it ceases to refer to a particular object and becomes the name of a class; as, "Who are the *Henry Clays* of to-day?"

(*b*) **A noun usually common may become proper** when it is used to distinguish any particular object from others of its class; as, "*Barber*, please do not talk so much."

125. *The proper noun has* **no subclasses.**

126. *The common noun may, for convenience, be divided into* **three subclasses,** *Collective, Abstract, and Class.*

127. *A* **Collective Noun** *is one whose singular form may represent a group of objects;* as, *flock*, *herd*, *swarm.*

(*a*) A collective noun always represents a group of animate objects.

(*b*) A collective noun may refer to its objects in either of two ways: —

(1) *Singly, separately, individually;* as, "Your *party have* carnations on *their* coats."

(2) *Collectively*, as *one unit* in which the individuals are lost sight of; as, "Your *party has* a place if *it* can find it."

128. *An* **Abstract Noun** *is the name of an object thought of as a quality of some other object;* as, "The *life* of a thing determines its value."

(*a*) In this respect also a noun may be used in either of two ways: —

(1) It may name an object as being a quality of some other object, as illustrated above.

(2) It may name an object as having qualities; as, "*Life* is more than raiment."

129. The first use gives abstract nouns; the second, class nouns.

(*a*) All *verbal nouns* are abstract.

130. *A* **Class Noun** *is any common noun that is neither collective nor abstract;* as, *boy*, *woman*, *barn*, *fork*. The large majority of common nouns are class nouns.

PROPERTIES OF NOUNS.

131. Nouns have four properties, **person, number, gender,** and **case.** We may discuss them in this order.

PERSON.

132. A noun may be used in the sentence so as to name: the **speaker,** as, "I, *Robert Brown*, shall master this grammar"; the **object spoken to,** as, "*Robert Brown*, you have a good opinion of yourself"; the **object spoken of,** as, "We all like *Robert Brown*." This property is **Person.** In these illustrative sentences the noun, *Robert Brown*, is, respectively, of the **first, second,** and **third person.**

133. **Person** *is the property of a noun that indicates whether it names the speaker, the object spoken to, or the object spoken of.*

(*a*) English nouns are not inflected for person. Person is shown by the noun's position in the sentence.

(*b*) Most nouns are of the third person.

(*c*) All predicate nouns are of the third person.

(*d*) The first and second persons belong only to names of persons, or of other objects personified.

(*e*) A noun of the first person is found in only two constructions: (1) *In apposition with a pronoun of the first person*, and (2) *in the nominative absolute case by subscription.*

(*f*) A noun of the second person has but two constructions: (1) *In apposition with a pronoun of the second person*, and (2) *in the nominative absolute case by direct address.*

NUMBER.

134. A noun may show that it designates *one object* or *more than one;* as, *stove, stoves; watch, watches; man, men.* This property is **Number.**

135. **Number** *is the property by which a noun shows whether it stands for one object or for more than one.*

136. Nouns have two numbers: the **singular,** denoting *one;* as, *log, pig, sun;* and the **plural,** denoting *more than one;* as, *logs, pigs, suns.*

THE FORMATION OF PLURALS.

137. A very important and very practical question is *how to write the plurals of singular nouns.* To avoid embarrassing, and it may be costly, mistakes, the few simple rules must be thoroughly mastered.

138. There are two general ways of forming the plurals of nouns: —

(1) **By Terminal Inflection,** that is, by a change in the ending: *Most nouns form their plurals by adding* **s** *or* **es** *to the singular forms;* as, *cap, caps; bonnet, bonnets; sin, sins; blade, blades; trench, trenches; bliss, blisses; leech, leeches.*

Euphony, the blending of the sounds, determines whether **s** or **es** is to be added.

(*a*) Nouns ending in *ch* (soft), *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z*, and some nouns in *o* preceded by a consonant, add *es* to the singular; as, *bench, benches; kiss, kisses; brush, brushes; tax, taxes; topaz, topazes; motto, mottoes.*

(*b*) Singular nouns ending in *y*, preceded by a consonant, change *y* to *i* and then add *es*; as, *baby, babies; history, histories; comedy, comedies.*

(*c*) A few singular nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, change the ending to *v* and then add *es*; as, *thief, thieves; wife, wives; life, lives; wolf, wolves.*

(2) **By Radical Change,** that is, by a change in the root vowel of the singular; as, *man, men; woman, women; goose, geese; tooth, teeth; mouse, mice; louse, lice.*

(*a*) Comparatively few nouns form their plurals in this manner.

PECULIARITIES OF NUMBER.

139. (1) A few nouns have the **same form for the singular and the plural.** Their number must be determined from some other part of the sentence; as, "The *sheep is* valuable," "The *sheep are* valuable."

(*a*) Other nouns of this class are *deer*, *grouse*, *series*, *salmon*, *heathen*.

140. (2) Some nouns have **double plurals**, one English and one foreign, or two English plurals *with different significations*; as: —

Brother,	Brothers (by birth),	Brethren (of same society).
Staff,	Staffs (military),	Staves (sticks).
Medium,	Mediums (persons),	Media (things).
Index,	Indexes (of books),	Indices (in algebra).

141. (3) Some nouns from foreign languages have **double plurals**, one foreign and one English, *with the same signification:* —

	English.	*Foreign.*
Formula (Latin),	Formulas,	Formulæ.
Dogma (Greek),	Dogmas,	Dogmata.
Cherub (Hebrew),	Cherubs,	Cherubim.
Bandit (Italian),	Bandits,	Banditti.

(*a*) The English plurals are preferable except in technical language.

142. (4) Some plural nouns have **no corresponding singular forms**; as, *scales* (for weighing), *pantaloons*, *annals*, *drawers* (clothing), *shears*, *victuals*.

143. (5) Some nouns have **the plural form but singular meaning**; as, *news*, *means*, *molasses*, *riches*, *pains*, *odds*, *thanks*, *gallows*, *amends*, *tidings*, etc.

(*a*) Also, *politics*, *ethics*, *optics*, *mathematics*, *physics*, and a few others represent Greek plurals, but are singular. It is better to say, "Ethics *is*," "Mathematics *is*," "Politics *is*," etc., than to use plural verbs.

144. (6) Abstract nouns **have no plurals**; as, *sagacity*, *prudence*, *meekness*, *harshness*, etc.

145. (7) **The plurals of letters, marks, figures, and signs** are formed by adding the *apostrophe* and *s*; as, "cross

your t's and dot your i's." "The + 's and − 's are not very important."

146. (8) **The plural of compound words** is commonly formed by pluralizing the part of the word that is described by the rest; as, *ox-carts*, *mouse-traps*, *sisters-in-law*, *commanders-in-chief*, etc.

(*a*) A few compound words pluralize both parts; as, *men-servants*, *women-servants*, *knights-templars* (or sometimes *knights-templar*).

147. (9) **The plural of proper nouns** is commonly formed by adding *s* or *es*; as, the *Bowsers*, the *Darsts*, the *Dickeys*, the *Joneses*.

(*a*) When a proper noun ends in *y*, some writers change the *y* to *i*, before adding the plural ending, and others do not; as, *Mary*, *Marys*, or *Maries*; *Fully*, *Fullys*, or *Fullies*.

148. (10) **The plural of proper nouns preceded by titles** is formed by pluralizing either the name or the title, but not both.

(*a*) **First Rule**: *If the title is* **Mrs.**, or is preceded by a numeral, the name is always pluralized; as, "*The Mrs. Browns*," "The two *Mrs. Barlows*," "The two *Miss Hatfields*."

(*b*) **Second Rule**: *The title should always be pluralized when it is* **Mister**, **Miss**, **Doctor**, **Professor**, etc., *not preceded by a numeral;* as, "The *Messrs. Frazier*," "The *Misses Steele*," "The *Drs. Johnson*."

GENDER.

149. A noun may denote an *object of the male sex*, an *object of the female sex*, an *object with sex not definitely specified*, or an *object without sex*. This property is **Gender**.

150. **Gender** *is the property of a noun or pronoun* (a substantive) *that expresses the relation of its object to sex.*

151. **A Substantive of the Masculine Gender** *represents a male object;* as, *Joseph*, *bachelor*, *uncle*, *boy*, *he*, *him*.

152. **A Substantive of the Feminine Gender** *represents a female object;* as, *Josephine*, *maid*, *aunt*, *girl*, *she*, *her*.

(*a*) In cases of personification — thinking of lower animals or inanimate objects as persons — masculine and feminine nouns are used, — "The *sun* in *his* glory," "The *moon* in *her* splendor." This is true only in the higher degrees of personification ; in the lowest, neuter nouns and pronouns are always used ; as, "The gentle *brooklet* hastens to *its* home in the sea."

153. A Substantive of the Common Gender represents an object with sex not definitely specified; as, *parent*, *child*, *persons*, *relatives*, *we*, *us*, *they*, *them*.

(*a*) A noun or pronoun is of the common gender when it represents either a single object whose sex is not specified or a number of objects not all of the same sex ; as, *person*, *relatives*.

154. A Substantive of the Neuter Gender *represents an object without sex;* as, *ice*, *box*, *tree*, *rain*.

(*a*) Neuter nouns and pronouns are often used to represent children and small animals ; as, "The *child* in *its* cradle." "The bird in its nest."

(*b*) In the disposition of a sentence, sometimes the noun that is used will enable us to know the gender of the pronoun ; as, "The *boys* lost *their* hats ; and in other sentences, the pronoun that is used tells us the gender of its corresponding noun ; as, "The *ship* has lost *her* way."

(*c*) It is important to remember the distinction between gender and sex. Sex belongs to objects, gender to nouns and pronouns. It would be as improper to speak of a *man of the masculine gender*, as of a *noun of the male sex*. There are only two sexes ; but, since substantives can tell four different things about sex, there are four genders.

(*d*) The gender of a collective noun may be masculine, feminine, common, or neuter.

155. It has already been pointed out that a collective noun may refer to its objects in either of two ways: —

(1) *Collectively*, as *one unit* ; as, "The *mob* in *its* fury burned the town." "*Congress* voted the appropriation before *it* adjourned." In this use the collective noun is always of the neuter gender.

(2) *Singly*, *separately*, *individually*. In this use, the gender of the noun depends upon the sex of the objects. If a group of male objects are referred to individually by a collective noun, its gender is masculine ; if a group of

female objects are referred to individually by a collective noun, its gender is feminine; if a group of objects not of the same sex be referred to individually by a collective noun, its gender is common. The following sentences illustrate in order, masculine, feminine, and common, the gender of a collective noun referring to its objects individually: —

Our *baseball team* wear blue caps on *their* heads.
The *sewing circle* have thimbles on *their* fingers.
The *congregation* remain till *their* contributions are collected.

But in the following sentence the collective noun refers to its objects as one unit and is therefore in the neuter gender: "The *congregation* is larger than *it* was a year ago."

156. Nouns may distinguish the sex of their objects in **three ways**, or have **three kinds of Inflection**: —

(1) BY DIFFERENT WORDS.

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.
Brother,	Sister.	Man,	Woman.
Drake,	Duck.	Son,	Daughter.
Father,	Mother.	Uncle,	Aunt.

(2) BY DIFFERENT TERMINATIONS.

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
Abbot,	Abbess.	Enchanter,	Enchantress.
Actor,	Actress.	Lion,	Lioness.
Baron,	Baroness.	Prince,	Princess.

(*a*) Most words of this class are appellations of office, occupation, or rank, and the feminine generally ends in *ess* or *trix*.

(*b*) There are not now so many feminines in *ess* as there were in earlier stages of our language. At present the best usage regards such terms as *doctor*, *author*, *writer*, *engraver*, as applicable both to men and to women.

(3) BY PREFIXES AND SUFFIXES.

He-bear,	She-bear.
Man-servant,	Maid-servant.
Mr. Jones,	{ Miss Jones. Mrs. Jones.

CASE.

(1) The *orator* convinced the *jury*.
(2) The *boy's hand* reached the *hat*.

157. A noun may stand in any one of several different *relations to the part of the sentence that governs it.* It may stand as the *subject of a finite verb*, like *orator* and *hand*. This is known as a *Nominative Relation*. It may be the *object of a verb*, like *jury* and *hat*. This is an *Objective Relation*. Also, it may *limit another noun so as to denote possession*, like *boy's*. This is a *Possessive Relation*.

158. *This property, the relation of a noun to the part of the sentence that governs it, is* **case.**

(*a*) Originally in our language case meant *form*. In some languages it means form now. English nouns, however, have lost all their case inflection except for the possessive. For this reason, it seems preferable to identify *case and governing relation*. Yet, since we still have in the possessive the one vestige of case as form, and since our pronouns are inflected for case, any student who prefers to distinguish *case* and *relation* will not be without good reason on his side.

(*b*) What is the way out? It is almost meaningless so far as nouns are concerned to regard case as form. On the other hand, when we parse *George*, in the sentence, "*George* came," as (1) in the nominative case, and (2) as the subject of *came*, we admit that the case is not quite identical with the relation. This, then, is probably the safest position: As our language now is, *each case is the group of relations that originally required nouns of the same form*. Then in parsing a noun, to name the group of relations including it is to give its *case*, and to state the specific relation this noun bears to the part of the sentence that governs it is to give its *construction*. Thus, in the sentence, "We are *students*," *students* is (1) in the nominative case, (2) the complement of the copulative verb *are*.

159. A noun may stand in any one of many different relations. These may be grouped into three general classes, *each group of relations being regarded as a case*. This gives us *three cases* which are called **Nominative, Possessive,** and **Objective.**

160. **Case** *is the sum of all the relations a substantive may bear to the governing part of a sentence.* **Any particular case,** as **nominative, possessive, objective,** *is the corresponding group of relations.* **The construction** *of a particular substantive is the specific relation it bears in its sentence.*

161. *The* **Nominative Case** *is the group of all the nominative relations.*

162. This case has two divisions, — the *Nominative Case* (dependent), and the *Nominative Case* (absolute).

163. The **Dependent Nominative Constructions** are : —

(1) *Subject of a finite verb ;* as : —

Bronson sold the book.
Henry is our doctor.
Thou art the man.
They believe us.
Who says it ?
He who runs may read.

(2) *Complement of a copulative verb whose subject is nominative ;* as, —

Mary is a studious *girl.*
We are *learners.*
You are not *I.*
They were *we.*
We were *they.*
We were thought to be *they.*
They were thought to be *we.*
Who are you ?
We know *who* you are.
I am not the *man that* he thinks I am.

(3) *In apposition with a nominative substantive ;* as: —

Your friend, *James,* wishes to see you.
She is his sister, *Martha.*
We, your *brothers,* request it.
Your cousin, *I,* shall wait for you.

(*a*) **A substantive in apposition** *is in the same case as the substantive it explains.*

(*b*) A substantive in almost any construction may have another in apposition with it.

(*c*) Neither an interrogative nor a relative (conjunctive) pronoun is ever in apposition.

(*d*) **A substantive is in apposition** *when*, **without a connecting element**, *it modifies another in the same case and of the same signification.*

(*e*) Observe that *the appositive term is the one that explains the other.*

(*f*) Apposition applies to all cases.

(*g*) Be careful to distinguish a substantive in apposition ; as, "Brown, the *doctor*, came," from one used as the complement of a copulative verb ; as, "Brown is a *doctor*."

164. Note the presence of a connecting element when a noun is used as the complement of a copulative verb, and the absence of a connective element when it is in apposition.

165. Finite and Infinite Verbs. — Examine the following sentences : —

(1) I *am*. (2) Thou *art*. (3) He *is*. (4) They *are*.

The first three show us that the verb changes its form as we change the *person* of its subject. Comparing (3) and (4) we note that the verb changes its form also for the *number* of its subject. In the following sentences : —

(1) You wish me *to be* well,
(2) I wish you *to be* well,
(3) She wishes him *to be* well,
(4) We wish them *to be* well,

we note that the italicized verbs do not change their form for the person or number of their subjects. The same is true of other verb forms, such as *being* and *having been*.

166. *A* **Finite Verb** *is one whose form may be modified by the person or number of its subject.*

167. *An* **Infinite Verb** *is one whose form is not modified by the person or number of its subject.*

168. *All verbs are finite verbs except Infinitives and Participles.*

169. Copulative Verbs *are those that join attributive expressions to their subjects;* as: *am*, *is*, *are*, *be*, *was*, *were*, *been*. These attributive expressions may be either adjectives or nouns. If nouns, they are called *predicate nouns*.

170. *A* **Predicate Noun** *is one used as the complement of a copulative verb.* With one exception, *a substantive completing a copulative verb is in* **the same case as its subject**; as, We thought John was a *farmer*. This construction belongs to pronouns as well as nouns; as, We thought she was *he*. It must be seen also that it applies to the objective case as well as to the nominative; as, We thought her to be *him*.

171. The Exception. — *A substantive is in the nominative case when it is the complement of a copulative participle whose subject is possessive;* as, *Your* being *he* should make no difference.

172. A substantive is in apposition when, without a connecting element, it modifies another in the same case and of the same signification.

(*a*) The appositive term is the one that explains the other.

(*b*) Apposition applies to all cases.

(*c*) Be careful to distinguish a substantive in apposition, as, "Brown, the *blacksmith*, came," from one used as the complement of a copulative verb, as, "Brown is a *blacksmith*."

(*d*) An appositive is in the same case as the substantive it modifies, and it means the same. A substantive used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject and means the same. So far they resemble. This is their difference: *A predicate noun has, and an appositive has not, a connecting element to join it to the substantive it explains.*

173. The Independent or Absolute Nominative Constructions are, —

(1) *By direct address:* —

George, we agree with you.

(2) *By exclamation :* —

The *men* of Mars !

(3) *By pleonasm :* —

Snakes of Iceland, there are none.

(4) *By inscription :* —

Thorndike's Psychology.

(5) *Subject of an independent participle :* —

Bob having said it, we believed it.

(6) *Complement of an independent copulative participle :* —

Susan being the *cook*, we had a good dinner.

(7) *In apposition :* —

Bryan, the *orator*, having come, we remained.

(*a*) A substantive in any of these constructions is in the nominative absolute case.

(*b*) A substantive in any one of the first six constructions may have another in apposition with it. *The class will give illustrations.*

(*c*) Pleonasm is the independent use of a substantive before a sentence that makes a statement or asks a question about the object the substantive designates ; as, —

The *soldiers*, they are noble men.
The soldiers, how many are here ?

(*d*) Inscription is merely the writing of isolated names out of any grammatical dependence. It includes superscriptions, subscriptions, and inscriptions on coins, signs, monuments, and books.

174. The Possessive Case *is the group of possessive relations or constructions.*

175. The Possessive Constructions are : —

(1) *Limiting a noun of different signification ;* as, —
Grace's cloak, *Robert's* book, *Paul's* slate, *Newton's* theory.

(2) *Limiting a noun of same signification = apposition ;* as,
Her Majesty, *Queen Elizabeth's* reign.

(3) *Subject of a participle having a dependent substantive use ;* as,
Susan's whispering disturbed Henry.
Her speaking good German secured the position.

176. The Possessive is the only case for which English nouns are inflected.

177. Singular nouns and plurals not ending in *s* *form their possessive by annexing* 's *to the nominative form;* as, —

The *boy's* ball; the *men's* objections.

178. Plural nouns ending in *s* form their possessive by annexing only the apostrophe; as, —

Nations' constitutions, *girls'* interests, *crickets'* songs.

(*a*) **When we use a pair or series of nouns** denoting common possession, the possessive sign is annexed only to the last; as, —

Scott and Denny's Rhetoric, *Kingery and Myer's* store.

(*b*) **When we use a pair or series of nouns** denoting separate possession, the sign is annexed to each, and the name limited by the last possessive is understood after each of the others; as, —

Hill's and *Smith's* Rhetoric = Hill's Rhetoric and Smith's Rhetoric.

(*c*) **In compound terms** the possessive sign is annexed to the last part; as, —

The *court-martial's* decisions. The courts-martial's decisions.

(*d*) **When a noun in the possessive case** is limited by **a noun in apposition** with it, by **a descriptive phrase, or by a pronominal adjective,** the possessive sign is annexed to the term immediately preceding the noun limited; as, —

The emperor *Napoleon's* grave. The secretary of the *Navy's* report. What I do is no one *else's* concern.

When the possessive idea is expressed by a proper noun explained by a common noun in apposition with it and when the name of the thing possessed is omitted, the possessive sign may be annexed to either the common or the proper noun, but not to both; as, —

He stopped at Smith the printer's, or He stopped at Smith's the printer.

(*e*) **The subject of a participle** having a dependent substantive use is in the possessive case and must be written in the possessive form. Otherwise the meaning is changed.

"The man's being truthful was not questioned," and "No one opposes the woman's running for office," do not mean the same as "The man being truthful was not questioned," and "No one opposes the woman running for office."

179. *The* **Objective Case** *is the group of all the objective relations or constructions.*

180. *The* **Objective Constructions** are : —

(1) *Object of a transitive verb ;* as, —

The horse injured the *floor*. He injured *us*.

(2) *Object of a preposition ;* as, —

She came for the *men*. She came for *us*.

(3) *Subject of an infinitive ;* as, —

He wishes *George* to be happy. He wishes *us* to be happy.

(4) *Complement of a copulative infinitive having its subject in the objective case ;* as, —

He thought me to be *George*. He thought George to be *me*.

(5) *In apposition ;* as, —

We saw Taft, the *President*.
We saw Taft, *him* for whom you voted.

(*a*) **A noun** in any of the first four constructions may be modified by an appositive. *The class will give written illustrations.*

(*b*) **Apposition** applies to all cases. *The class will write illustrations.*

181. *The* **direct object** *is the object of an active transitive verb ;* as, —

Men build *houses*.
She hurt *us*.

182. A substantive cannot be the object of an intransitive verb. As illustrated above, an intransitive infinitive when copulative may be followed by an objective complement ; as,

We thought Jane to be *Martha*.
We thought him to be *her*.

But such as the italicized words are objective attributive complements, not direct objects.

(*a*) **A cognate objective or accusative** is a direct object similar in signification to the verb ; as, —

He dreamed a frightful *dream*.
She lived a noble *life*.

(*b*) **The object of a preposition** is in the objective case ; as, —

It is for *me*. It is for *Sam* and *me*.
She sat by *me*. She sat by *Robert* and *me*.
He came with *her*. He came with *Mary* and *her*.

A nominative form of a pronoun in place of any of the italicized words would be an unjustifiable error.

(*c*) **The Indirect Object.** — A transitive verb is sometimes followed by two objectives differing in signification, — *a direct object*, denoting that which the verb's action directly affects, and an *indirect object*, denoting a different thing that is also affected, but indirectly, by the same action ; as, —

She made the *girl* a dress.
George gave *me* a book.
Lend *us* your sled.
Her friend sent *her* a present.
Thomas asked *me* a question.

(*d*) The following and some other verbs may be followed by indirect objects : *allow*, *ask*, *bring*, *buy*, *get*, *give*, *leave*, *lend*, *make*, *offer*, *pass*, *pay*, *present*, *promise*, *refuse*, *send*, *show*, *sing*, *teach*, *tell*, *throw*, *write*.

(*e*) The indirect object closely resembles the Latin *dative*, and should always be parsed as the object of a preposition, usually *to* or *for*, unexpressed but clearly implied.

(*f*) As the relation between the verb's action and the additional object becomes less apparent, that is, as the verb becomes less able to express this relation, the preposition is always inserted ; as, —

She set the table by *me*.
He put the book near *me*.

183. Thus it is seen that the construction known as the *indirect object* gradually shades off into the ordinary construction, *object of a preposition*.

184. The **Object of the Verb** *teach* may be either a word designating a person or a word designating a branch of study ; as in, —

He teaches *me Grammar*.

Either of the italicized words may be regarded as the direct object of *teaches* and the other as the object of a preposition. Thus the sentence may be construed either

He teaches *me* in Grammar,

or —

He teaches *Grammar* to me.

The verb *teach*, accordingly, may mean either *to give instruction to* or *to give instruction in.*

185. The Adverbial Objective or Objective without a Governing Word. — Nouns used after intransitive verbs and adjectives, to express such ideas as *time*, *distance*, *measure*, and *value*, are often in the objective case, governed by unexpressed prepositions; as, —

He tried many *times* to do the work.
Day and *night* the battle raged.

(*a*) Such words cannot be governed by the verbs, which are intransitive, but must be parsed as the object of prepositions not expressed. In the first sentence above the preposition is *on*, *at*, or *in;* in the second it is *during*. In many cases, however, it is difficult, sometimes impossible, to find a preposition that accurately expresses the relation.

186. The Resultant or Factitive Object *is an additional objective used to express the result of the verb's action on the receiver of this action;* as, —

We appointed Louise *secretary.*
We made him our *assistant.*

(*a*) Such objects follow the verb *make* or a verb meaning *to make*, and are therefore called *factitive*; they always express the *result* of the action, and may therefore be called *resultant.*

(*b*) A resultant object should be regarded as an appositive, in apposition with the direct object.

187. The Objective Subject of an Infinitive. — As previously stated the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case. So, the *subject of an infinitive*, when it depends wholly upon the infinitive, *is in the objective case;* as, —

We thought *Marshall* to be you.
We thought *him* to be you.

(*a*) When the subject of an infinitive is also the subject of a finite verb, the complement of a finite copula, or in apposition with a nominative substantive, it is in the nominative case; as, —

The *boy* was thought to be you.
He is the *boy* to be rewarded.
James, the *boy* to be rewarded, is here.

188. The Objective Complement of an Infinitive Copula. — One of the most important rules of Grammar is, — *A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject.* To this rule there is the one exception : *When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, its complement is nominative;* as, —

Smith's being a *doctor* we felt more secure.

189. The rule is applicable to

(1) *The Nominative Case;* as, —

She thought Thomas was *Sam.*
She thought he was *I.*

(2) *The Nominative Absolute Case;* as, —

Henry being a *merchant*, we traded with him.
Richard being *he*, we could not do otherwise.

(3) *The Objective Case;* as, —

She thought Thomas to be *Sam.*
She thought him to be *me.*

(*a*) The complement of an infinitive copula is not always objective but only when its subject is objective. Thus, in

Sarah hopes to be a *musician*,
They were thought to be *we*,

the complements are nominative, because the subject of each infinitive, being also the subject of a finite verb, is nominative.

190. Objective in Apposition. — Apposition *is the use of a substantive, without a connective element, to modify another in the same case and of the same signification.* Apposition applies to

(1) *The Nominative Case*, —

Towser, the *merchant*, came.

(2) *The Nominative Absolute Case*, —

Towser, the *merchant*, wait on us.

(3) *The Possessive Case*, —

Towser the *merchant's* house was burned.

(4) *The Objective Case*, —

We like Towser, the *merchant*.

(*a*) Note that the appositive term is the one that explains the other.

191. The object of a passive verb is sometimes spoken of but there is no such a construction. A verb in the passive voice cannot govern an object. Its subject represents the receiver of an action.

192. Objective by Enallage. — By a figure of speech called *enallage*, the subject of a participle is sometimes given the objective form when it should have the possessive. This usage should not be encouraged, for it always gives the sentence a meaning different from the one intended. Thus, there is a great difference between

There is no objection to the *woman*'s speaking,

and

There is no objection to the *woman* speaking.

193. *The class will tell what the difference is and when each form should be used.*

194. Declension of Nouns *is their variation in form to denote case;* as,

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nominative.	girl	girls
Possessive.	girl's	girls'
Objective.	girl	girls

(*a*) Richard Grant White has called English the grammarless tongue, but by *grammarless* he means *inflectionless*. In the early stages of our language each case had a distinct form; now only the possessive. In the sense that grammar is construction, no language has a grammar superior to ours.

PARSING OF NOUNS.

195. Parsing a word is giving, in order, its part of speech, its classes and subclasses, its properties, its government or construction, and the rule applying to its construction.

196. Parsing affords a good opportunity to learn neatness, carefulness, and accuracy. Some of it may be oral, but most of it should be written in ink, with correct punctuation and capitals.

197. A reasonable amount of parsing is excellent, but it can be easily overdone. It is not nearly so helpful as exercises in constructing original sentences to illustrate specified constructions. But parsing is less difficult and should therefore precede.

MODEL FOR PARSING NOUNS.

1. Part of Speech.	4. Person.	7. Case.
2. Class.	5. Number.	8. Construction.
3. Subclass.	6. Gender.	9. Rule.

Timid *women* may manifest marvelous *courage*.

Women, noun, common, class, third, plural, feminine, nominative, subject of *manifest*, Rule I.

Courage, noun, common, class, third, singular, neuter, objective, object of *manifest*, Rule IV.

(*a*) On page 152 may be found the principal rules of English syntax. Every pupil should thoroughly master them so that he may quote them accurately and with full understanding and refer to them by their numbers.

(*b*) If the teacher so directs, the class may use abbreviations in parsing, but must be sure that proper forms are used and correct punctuation.

Exercises for Written Parsing. — *Parse italicized words.*

(1) The *children* have broken their *dolls*.
(2) The chief *excellence* of *Mary's character* is its *evenness*.
(3) A good *start* insures a good *ending*.
(4) Spare the *rod* and spoil the *child*.
(5) As *water* its *level*, one *loafer* seeks another.
(6) Last *winter* the *child* walked a *mile* through the *snow*.
(7) *Brown* was appointed *captain* of the *team*.
(8) The *society* wishes *Mrs. Lawrence* to be its *secretary*.
(9) *Helen* desires to be a *leader* in all *work*.
(10) The *men* wish *Charles*, the *banker's son*, to be their *teacher*.

A WRITTEN REVIEW OF NOUNS.

(*a*) All answers must be written with neatness and accuracy. The pupils need not write the questions. For each question, write its corresponding number, and just after the number, the proper answer.

(*b*) To prepare for a written review, the questions in it should be discussed orally by the pupils and teacher, taking from ten to twenty questions at a lesson.

(*c*) The written reviews are invaluable. They can on no account be dispensed with. When, however, such an arrangement meets the approval of the teacher, he may, with the consent of the class, omit the term examinations for all pupils who have submitted written answers to all reviews and have shown the ability to step to the blackboard and defend their answers.

(1) What is a noun?

(2) A substantive?

(3) Which is the broader term? Explain.

(4) Name the two classes of nouns.

(5) Define and illustrate each.

(6) Why do we have two classes?

(7) When does a common noun become proper? A proper noun become common? Illustrate.

(8) Name the subclasses of common nouns. Of proper nouns.

(9) Define and illustrate each subclass.

(10) In what ways may a collective noun refer to its objects? Give illustrations, noting the difference in the verbs.

(11) Make a comprehensive statement concerning the gender of collective nouns, giving illustrations.

(12) Show how an abstract noun names its object.

(13) Name the properties of nouns.

(14) Define Person. Name the persons. Define and illustrate each.

(15) Define Number. Name the numbers. Define and illustrate each.

(16) Make ten important statements about the formation of plurals.

(17) Define Gender.

(18) Name the genders. Define each. Illustrate.

(19) When is the gender of a collective noun neuter? common? masculine? feminine? Give illustrations.

(20) Distinguish gender and sex. Show how we may have four genders when there are only two sexes.

(21) Define case. What cases do nouns have? Define each. Illustrate.

(22) Distinguish case and form.

(23) Discuss case as relation.

(24) If case is to be regarded as relation, how do you distinguish case and construction?

(25) What are the two divisions of the nominative case?

(26) Name and illustrate the constructions belonging to each division.

(27) Define a finite verb. An infinite verb.

(28) In what case is the subject of each? Illustrate.

(29) Define a copulative verb. Illustrate. In what case is the complement of a copulative verb? Illustrate.

(30) Define a predicate noun. Illustrate.

(31) Give the rule for the case of the complement of a copulative verb. To what cases does it apply? Illustrate. State the exception. Illustrate it.

(32) When is a substantive in apposition?

(33) To what cases does apposition apply? Illustrate.

(34) Compare and contrast a predicate noun and a noun in apposition.

(35) Name and illustrate the nominative absolute constructions.

(36) Name the possessive constructions. Illustrate each.

(37) How do singular nouns form their possessive? Plural nouns? Illustrate.

(38) Tell what you know about the use of the possessive sign with a pair or series of nouns. With an appositive.

(39) Tell when the subject of a participle is in the possessive case.

(40) Name the objective constructions. Illustrate.

(41) What is apposition? To what cases does it apply? Illustrate.

(42) Define and illustrate a direct object.

(43) What can you say about the object of an intransitive verb?

(44) Define and illustrate a cognate objective.

(45) Give ten illustrations of the object of a preposition.

(46) Define indirect object. Give six illustrations.

(47) Tell what you know about the object of the verb *teach*, giving illustrations and explanations.

(48) Explain and illustrate the adverbial objective or objective without a governing word.

(49) Define and illustrate a resultant or factitive object.

(50) Give ten illustrations of the objective subject of an infinitive.

(51) Give ten illustrations of the objective complement of an infinitive copula.

(52) Give the rule for the case of the complement of a copulative verb. To what cases does it apply? Illustrate.

(53) State the exception. Illustrate.

(54) Give an example of a noun objective in apposition.

(55) Define apposition. To what cases does it apply? Illustrate.

(56) What can you say of the "object of a passive verb"?
(57) Explain the construction, "objective by enallage."
(58) What is meant by the declension of nouns? Illustrate.
(59) What is meant by calling English the "grammarless tongue"?
(60) In what sense does English have a grammar?
(61) What is parsing? What advantages may be derived from it? What grammar exercises are better?

THE PRONOUN.

198. When we wish to designate an object by naming it, we use a noun; as, —

Stephen broke the *chair*.

Very often, however, we wish to designate objects without naming them. Then we use other words *instead of nouns;* as, —

He broke *it*.

These other words are *pronouns*.

199. *A* **Pronoun** *is a word used to designate an object without naming it;* or,

200. *A* **Pronoun** *is a word used instead of a noun: It, I, thou, you, he, she,* and their declined forms are pronouns.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

201. Pronouns have three uses: —

(1) *To avoid the repetition of nouns;* as, "James told Martha that *he* would call on *her*," instead of James told Martha that James would call on Martha." Such pronouns show their grammatical person by their form. They are, therefore, called **Personal Pronouns.**

(2) *To ask questions;* as, —

Who is with you? *What* does he want?

These are **Interrogative Pronouns.**

(3) *To join a modifying clause to an antecedent;* as, —

The house, *which* was very valuable, was a great loss.
The house *that* Jack built was made of words.

These are **Relative or Conjunctive Pronouns.**

202. *A* **Personal Pronoun** *is one whose form shows its person.*

Thus, we know by their forms that *I* or *we* is of the *first person; thou*, *you*, or *ye*, of the *second person; he*, *she*, *it*, or *they*, of the *third person.*

203. *An* **Interrogative Pronoun** *is one used as the interrogative word in a question;* as, —

Who came to see you? *What* did he want?

204. *A* **Relative** *or* **Conjunctive Pronoun** *is one that joins a clause to its antecedent;* as, —

My aunt, *who* believes in order, censured us.

The man, *who* has a bad temper, became angry.

He *that* ruleth his own spirit is greater than he *that* taketh a city.

(*a*) The term *relative* is used in most grammars; but *conjunctive* is much more appropriate, because it expresses the distinguishing characteristic of this class of pronouns, — *their connective use.*

205. *The* **Antecedent** *of a pronoun is the substantive to which the pronoun refers.*

(*a*) The antecedent is usually a noun; as in The *bucket* is where you left *it.* It may, however, be a phrase or a clause; as, *To repair the damage*, *which* is the only thing to do, will be expensive.

That the crime was committed, *which* some doubted, has been proved. *She has finished her course of study* and is now glad of *it.*

(*b*) The antecedent of a relative pronoun is sometimes another pronoun, personal or interrogative; as, —

He that laughs last laughs best.

Who that knows him doubts him?

(*c*) Personal and relative pronouns follow their antecedents, except in inverted sentences.

(*d*) The antecedent of an interrogative pronoun follows it, and is therefore more properly called the subsequent. The pronoun and the subsequent are in different sentences; as, —

Who wrote Hamlet? *Shakespeare* wrote Hamlet.

(*e*) A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

206. *A* **Personal Pronoun** *is one whose form shows its person.*

(*a*) The antecedent of a personal pronoun may refer to a person, a brute animal, or lower object; as, —

The *children* came and *they* left.
The *horses* are here and *they* will remain.
The *trees* were planted and *they* grew.
The *marbles* were saved, but *they* are not worth much.

(*b*) *You* is used in addressing either one or more than one, but always requires a plural form of the verb; as, "You *are*," or "you *were*"; never *is* or *was*.

(*c*) *Thou* and *ye*, with their declined forms, are used in scriptural language.

(*d*) *Mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *ours*, *theirs*, *hers*, are used instead of *my*, *thy*, *your*, *our*, *their*, *her* when the limited noun is omitted, but the two forms are parsed alike.

(*e*) *We* is ordinarily used as the plural of *I*. It has also an *editorial* or *representative* use when the speaker conceives himself to be the representative of a *class*, *school*, *doctrine*, *people*, *community*, *section*, *state*, or *nation*.

(*f*) The English language has no personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, common gender.

(*g*) In using two or more pronouns of different persons, it is a matter of established courtesy to use the second person first and the first person last; as, You, he, and I were praised.

(*h*) Personal pronouns have two subclasses, *simple* and *compound*.

(*i*) The simple personals are *I*, *thou*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and their declined forms.

(*j*) The compound personals are *myself*, *thyself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *itself*, *herself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*. They have two uses: —

(1) *Reflexive*, used only in the objective case; as, —

She hurt *herself*; and

(2) *Intensive*, used in the nominative or the objective case, as, —

She *herself* likes John.
She likes John *himself*.

In the intensive use, which is merely for emphasis, the pronoun is always in apposition.

PROPERTIES OF PRONOUNS.

207. Pronouns, whether personal, interrogative, or relative, have the same properties as nouns, — **person, number, gender, case.** They have also the same constructions as nouns.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

	First Person.		Second Person.	
	singular.	plural.	singular.	plural.
Nominative.	I.	We.	Thou, you.	Ye, you.
Possessive.	My.	Our.	Thy, your.	Your.
Objective.	Me.	Us.	Thee, you.	You.

	Third Person.			
	singular.			plural.
	Masculine.	*Feminine.*	*Neuter.*	*All genders.*
Nominative.	He.	She.	It.	They.
Possessive.	His.	Her.	Its.	Their.
Objective.	Him.	Her.	It.	Them.

(*a*) Every pupil should fix the declension firmly, and should never lose sight of the fact *that the object of declension is to associate the different forms with their corresponding persons, numbers, genders,* and *cases.* Having mastered this, he may avoid all errors in the use of pronouns by understanding and applying a very few rules, — particularly Rule I., II., III., IV., V., VI., VII., and XIV. There is no other way to be able to use the pronouns correctly and with assurance.

(*b*) When a pupil declines a pronoun, he should be permitted to use each case form in a sentence, and illustrate any nominative or objective construction the teacher or class may call for.

(*c*) It will be observed that pronouns are much more highly inflected than nouns, or than any other part of speech except the verb.

(*d*) Pronouns and verbs are technically more difficult and practically more important than all other parts of speech together. Nine tenths of all grammatical difficulties and nine tenths of all grammatical errors arise in connection with pronouns and verbs. *Whatever else must be slighted, let pronouns and verbs be mastered.*

MODEL FOR PARSING PRONOUNS.

1. Part of speech. 2. Class. 3. Subclass.
4. Antecedent or Subsequent.
5. Agreement in (*a*) Person, (*b*) Number, (*c*) Gender.
6. Rule. 7. Case.
8. Construction. 9. Rule.

The children left *their* books and *I* found *them.*

208. **Their**, pronoun, personal, simple, antecedent, *children*, with which it agrees in third, plural, common, Rule XIV., possessive, and limits *books*, Rule VIII.

209. **I**, pronoun, personal, simple, antecedent, name of the speaker, with which it agrees in first, singular, common, Rule XIV., nominative, subject of *found*, Rule I.

210. **Them**, pronoun, personal, simple, antecedent, *books*, with which it agrees in third, plural, neuter, Rule XIV., objective, object of *found*, Rule IV.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

211. *The class will write the parsing of italicized pronouns, using correct capitals, punctuation, and spelling. Give orally the construction of italicized nouns. Read to the teacher and class grammar references on all questionable constructions.*

(1) *I* like *him*.
(2) *His father* works while *he* loafs.
(3) *We* wish *you* would bring *your friend* to see *our* new *schoolhouse*.
(4) *Yours* is as good as *ours*.
(5) *We* must criticize *ourselves* on *our mistakes*.
(6) Behold the *moon*; *she* cometh forth in *her beauty*.
(7) *I* am older than *he*. *You yourself* told *me* about *him*.
(8) *Them* that honor *me*, I will honor.
(9) *She* thought *he* was *I*.
(10) *She* wished to be a *musician*, but *she* wished *me* to be a *farmer*.
(11) *She* is a good *girl*.
(12) *We* think *she* is a good *girl*.
(13) *We* think *her* to be a good *girl*.
(14) *She* being a good *girl*, *we* all liked *her*.
(15) *She* was believed to be a good *girl*.

212. *Fill the blanks with* **he**, **she**, **him**, **her**, **I**, *or* **me**, *and give the number of the rule that governs your selection:* —

(1) —— thinks —— am ——.
(2) —— likes —— and ——.
(3) —— came with Mary and ——.

(4) —— sat between —— and ——.
(5) —— thought —— was ——.
(6) —— believes —— to be ——, but —— am supposed to be ——.

213. *Fill blanks with* **we, us, they,** *and* **them,** *referring to the rule that governs each selection:* —

(1) Helen and —— are going with ——.
(2) Did you say that —— or —— were wanted?
(3) She hurt —— and ——.
(4) Let none touch it but —— who are clean.
(5) He thought —— were ——.
(6) She thought —— were ——, but —— were supposed to be ——.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

214. *An* **Interrogative Pronoun** *is one that asks or implies a question.*

(*a*) If it directly asks a question, it is **a direct interrogative**; as, "*Who* came with you?" If it indirectly implies a question, it is **an indirect interrogative**; as, "We know *who* came with you."

(*b*) There are two interrogative pronouns, **who** and **what**.

(*c*) **Which** is often used interrogatively, but is better disposed of as an adjective than as a pronoun; as, "*Which* (pair) do you prefer?" *Which* always has a more definite reference than *who* or *what*.

(*d*) **What** is an adjective when it immediately precedes a noun; as, "*What* answer shall I make?" **Who** is never used adjectively.

DECLENSION OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Nominative.	Who.	What.
Possessive.	Whose.	What's.
Objective.	Whom.	What.

215. **Who** is used when it is supposed that the word answering to it will be the name of a *person;* **what** when it is supposed that the word answering to it is the name of *anything else.*

216. **The case and construction** of an interrogative pronoun are always the same as the case and construction of its responsive word in the answer; as, —

Who came? *George* came. *Who* is it? It is *George*. *Whose* book

is it? It is *George's* book. *Whom* does she like? She likes *George*. *Whom* did he buy it for? He bought it for George.

Every interrogative word *has the same construction in the interrogative sentence as the responsive word has in the declarative sentence that answers the question.*

(*a*) This is one of the most helpful of all grammatical rules. The class should be allowed to illustrate it by applying it to every kind of word that can ask a question.

(*b*) An interrogative pronoun is never in the nominative absolute case, and is never in apposition.

(*c*) No interrogative word is ever used as a connective.

(*d*) An interrogative pronoun has no compound forms.

(*e*) The form *what's* given in the declension is very seldom used. If, however, one should hear the statement, "*Its* leg was broken," the proper question would be, "*What's* leg was broken?" "The table's."

DIRECT AND INDIRECT INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

217. The direct interrogative pronoun asks a direct question and may be used in either a principal sentence or a substantive clause; as,

Who took the horse?
Who do you think took the horse?

218. The indirect interrogative pronoun never asks, but always implies, a question, and always occurs in a substantive clause; as,

Who took the horse is a question.
We think we know *who* took the horse.
He asked *what* is in the bucket.
The question is, *what* is in the bucket.

219. This distinction cannot be avoided by calling *who* and *what* relative pronouns in such sentences as the last four. *They are not relative pronouns. They are not used like relative pronouns.* **Here are the tests: —**

(1) **Who** *or* **what** *as a direct interrogative pronoun asks a direct question and may be used in either a principal sentence or a substantive clause.*

(2) **Who** *or* **what** *as an indirect interrogative pronoun never asks, but always implies, a question, and is always used in a substantive clause.*

(3) **Who** *as a relative pronoun is always used in an adjective clause, which it joins to its antecedent.*

(4) **What** *as a relative pronoun is always double, — equivalent to both an antecedent part and a relative part, — and can be expanded into* **the thing that** *or* **the thing which**; *as, —*

I see *what* you have = I see the *thing that* you have.

(*a*) **No interrogative word**, direct or indirect, **is ever a connective.** No connective is needed for a substantive clause.

(*b*) **The declension** of the indirect interrogative pronouns is the same as that of the direct interrogatives. *The class will illustrate, using each form in a sentence.*

(*c*) **The substantive clause** containing the indirect interrogative pronoun may be used in any one of the three nominative or five objective constructions. *Class will illustrate.*

(*d*) **The construction** of the indirect interrogative pronoun in the implied question is the same as would be that of the direct interrogative if the question were asked; and the construction of the direct interrogative pronoun in the question is the same as that of the responsive word in the answer. *Class will give illustrations.*

(*e*) **Either a direct or an indirect interrogative pronoun** may be used in any of the nominative or objective constructions except apposition. *Class will illustrate.*

PARSING OF INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

(1) *Who* told you about it?
(2) *What* did you say she brought?
(3) I can guess *whom* she will appoint.

220. Who, pronoun, interrogative, direct, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the question, with which it agrees in person, number, and gender, Rule XIV., nominative, subject of *told*, Rule I.

221. What, pronoun, interrogative, direct, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the question, with

which it agrees in person, number, and gender, Rule XIV., objective, object of *brought*, Rule IV.

(*a*) Note that *who* and *what* are both direct interrogative pronouns, — each asks a direct question, — but *who* occurs in a principal sentence, and *what* in a substantive clause. *Whom* in the following sentence is also in a substantive clause, but as it only implies a question it is an indirect interrogative pronoun.

222. Whom, pronoun, interrogative, indirect, subsequent, the responsive word in the answer to the implied question, with which it agrees in person, number, and gender, Rule XIV., objective, object of *will appoint*, Rule IV.

(*a*) An interrogative pronoun as subject generally requires a third person singular verb, but for convenience the models given above may be followed for all interrogative pronouns.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

223. *Write in full the parsing of all italicized words. Discuss any other words having interesting constructions.*

(1) *Who* hurt you ?
(2) *Whom* did you hurt ?
(3) To *whom* did he apply ?
(4) *Who* is in the library ?
(5) *Who* is he ?
(6) *Who* is the President ? *Taft* is the President.
(7) *Who* is your guest ? Our guest is *Mr. Brown.*
(8) *What* would you give for the *farm ?*
(9) *What* would you give the *farm* for ?
(10) *What* do you think he would give for the *farm ?*
(11) Do you know *what* he wishes you to be ?
(12) Can you imagine *whom* he thought to be *me ?*

224. *Fill each blank with the suitable pronoun, giving the number of the rule it illustrates.*

(1) —— is with the children ?
(2) —— are they ?
(3) With —— are you working ?
(4) —— does she suppose you think I am ?
(5) —— do you think me to be ?
(6) —— do you think to be me ?

(7) —— do you think I am ?
(8) —— do you think is I ?
(9) You do not know —— he thinks we are.
(10) Can you guess —— I thought she was ?
(11) —— do you say she thinks I was supposed to be ?
(12) The question, —— do you think I was supposed to be, she could not answer.

RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

225. *A* **Relative or Conjunctive Pronoun** *is one that joins to its antecedent a limiting clause;* as, —

Boys **that** *are industrious* seldom fail.
The tree, **which** *was a large one*, sheltered us.

226. Note carefully the following points and illustrate each to the satisfaction of the teacher and class : —

(1) *A relative pronoun is found only in a complex sentence.*

(2) *The relative pronoun is never found in the principal, but always in the subordinate sentence.*

(3) *The antecedent of a relative pronoun is always found in the principal, never in the subordinate sentence.*

(4) *The relative pronoun is always governed by some word in the subordinate, and never by any word in the principal sentence.*

227. There are five relative pronouns, — **who, which, that, as,** and **what.**

228. As may be seen from the following sentences, the person and number of a relative pronoun are not shown by its form, but are to be determined only by its antecedent: —

I *that* did the work should receive the pay.
You *that* did the work should receive the pay.
He *that* did the work should receive the pay.
They *that* did the work should receive the pay.
We *that* did the work should receive the pay.

229. The substantive modified by the relative clause is the **antecedent.** It is commonly a *noun* or *personal pronoun;* as, —

The **horse,** *which* was very tired, came slowly.
He *that* is without blame may criticize.

Sometimes, however, the antecedent may be, —

(1) *A phrase;* as, **To go with him,** *which* is to recommend him, would please him.

(2) *A sentence;* as, **The child came,** *which* is evidence that it had been sent.

(3) *An interrogative pronoun;* as, **Who** *that* has seen him will doubt him?

(*a*) The antecedent of a relative pronoun is never another relative pronoun.

230. The antecedent is commonly in the *nominative case* or the *objective*, but occasionally it may be found in the *possessive case* or the *nominative absolute;* as,

His praise is lost *who* waits till all commend.
Martha, *who* had visited us before, having promised to be there, we remained at home.

CLASSES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

231. Relative pronouns have **three classes,** — *simple, compound, double.*

(*a*) The *simple relatives* are **who, which, that, as.**

(*b*) The *compound relatives* are those formed by annexing *ever* or *soever* to the simple relatives, *who* and *which. That* and *as* have no compound forms. The compound relatives are more comprehensive and less definite in their use than the simple relatives.

(*c*) The double relative is **what,** — called double because it is equivalent to two parts, an *antecedent part* and a *relative part. What* as a double relative can be parsed only by expanding it into its equivalent parts and parsing them separately. When the sentence containing the double relative is expanded, it is seen that the *antecedent part* belongs in the principal sentence and the *relative part* in the subordinate clause ; as, "I gave him *what* I had" = "I gave him the *thing that* I had." The

double relative *what* has also the compound forms, *whatever* and *whatsoever.*

PERSONAL AND RELATIVE PRONOUNS COMPARED.

232. They are alike in, —

(1) Both have *antecedents.*
(2) Both *agree with their antecedents* in *person*, *number*, and *gender.*
(3) Both have the *properties* and *constructions* of nouns.
(4) Both have the *subclasses*, *simple* and *compound.*
(5) Both are *declined.*

233. They are unlike in, —

(1) The relative has, and the personal has not, a *connective use.*
(2) The personal has, and the relative has not, a *distinct form* for each grammatical person.
(3) The personal may be used in either a *principal sentence* or a *subordinate clause;* the relative, only in a *subordinate clause.*
(4) The relative may, and the personal may not, be *double.*

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

	SIMPLE.	DOUBLE.
Nominative.	Who, which, that.	What.
Possessive.	Whose, whose, whose.	
Objective.	Whom, which, that.	What.

	COMPOUND.
Nominative.	Whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever.
Possessive.	Whosesoever.
Objective.	Whomsoever, whichever, whichsoever.

(*a*) The double relative *what* and the simple relative *as* are not used in the possessive.

(*b*) *As* is *indeclinable;* it may be *singular* or *plural; masculine*, *feminine*, or *neuter; nominative* or *objective.*

KINDS OF OBJECTS.

234. **Who** refers to *persons* or to *other objects* personified; as, —

The doctor, *who* is a very good one, has hopes.
The goose, *who* hated the dog, thus in winged words addressed him.

235. Which refers either to *brute animals* or to *lower objects;* as, —

The dog, *which* was well trained, made no mistake.
The tree, *which* was a tall one, fell on the house.

(*a*) In earlier English *which* was used for *persons;* as "Our Father, *which* art in heaven," but it is not so used now.

236. That refers to *persons*, *brute animals*, or *lower objects;* as, —

The man *that* lies there has a broken leg.
The cow *that* lies there has a broken leg.
The chair *that* lies there has a broken leg.

KINDS OF CLAUSES.

237. Clauses in which relative pronouns are used **are of two kinds, restrictive** and **nonrestrictive** or **explanatory.**

238. *A* **Restrictive Clause** *is one that restricts or narrows the application of the antecedent;* as, —

Men *that are lazy* find life's road rough.
A horse *that is gentle* is valuable.
A field *that is cultivated* yields good returns.

(*a*) A **Restrictive Clause** has the force of an adjective; as, *lazy* men, a *gentle* horse, a *cultivated* field.

239. *A* **Nonrestrictive** *or* **Explanatory Clause** *is one that explains the antecedent, or expresses a thought as additional to the one contained in the principal sentence;* as, —

Books, *which are great educators*, are our friends.
A doctor, *who is needed in every community*, should be a strong man.
The house, *which was a large one*, could be seen from the station.

(*a*) While a restrictive clause has the force of an adjective, a nonrestrictive clause is more like an appositive, although both clauses are regarded as adjective elements.

(*b*) The distinction between *restrictive* and *explanatory* clauses is very important. Let the class master the definitions. Each member must be able to point out readily the relative clauses in the Algebra, Literature, History, Physiology, and other studies, and to tell whether each is *restrictive* or *nonrestrictive*, and *why*. Also, he must be able to

give in his own language, and on any of the school subjects, illustrations of each kind of clause, using in each the most suitable relative.

(*c*) An explanatory clause is, and a restrictive clause is not, set off by commas.

THE RELATIVE TO BE PREFERRED.

240. In Restrictive Clauses modern English shows a preference for **that**, but **who** and **which** are also used; as, —

(1) The man *that* told you is mistaken.
(2) The horse *that* ran away is not to be trusted.
(3) The gate *that* you see cannot be opened.

(*a*) Although *that* is preferable, some good writers would be as likely to use *who* in (1) and *which* in (2) and (3).

241. In Explanatory Clauses, who and **which** are used.

(1) The man, *who* had told us, now told them.
(2) The horse, *which* runs away, is dangerous.
(3) The gate, *which* is broken, cannot be used.

(*a*) In construing a relative clause, observe the punctuation. If the clause is set off by commas, it is intended to be *exclamatory;* if it is not set off by commas, it is restrictive, regardless of the relative that is used.

(*b*) In writing your own relative clauses, first determine what force you wish each clause to have. If it is to narrow or limit the antecedent, then you use a restrictive clause, not set off by commas; if it is to explain the antecedent or express a thought as additional to that of the principal sentence, then you use a nonrestrictive clause, containing *who* or *which* and set off by commas.

(*c*) When a relative is immediately preceded by a preposition, it must be *whom* or *which*, not *that;* as, —

He is the boy by *whom* I sat.

The relative pronoun *that* can be used as the object of a preposition only when the preposition ends the sentence; as, —

He is the boy *that* I sat *by*.

(*d*) When a sentence contains two relatives referring to different antecedents, it is better for euphony to use *that* in one clause and *who* or *which* in the other; as, —

I know a woman *who* has a daughter *that* is very beautiful, or
I know a woman *that* has a daughter *who* is very beautiful.

242. **As** is a relative pronoun after *such*, *many*, and *same;* as, —

Such help *as* I have is at your disposal.
As many people *as* came were seated.
The same temptations *as* he met we must meet.

(*a*) The relative *as* is used only in restrictive clauses.

(*b*) **What** and **whatever** are sometimes used as the respective equivalents of *which* and *whichever ;* as, —

What assistance you have you need, = You need the assistance *which* you have ; and

Whatever consolation he gets he is entitled to, = He is entitled to the consolation *whichever* he gets.

In such cases *what* and *whatever* are not double relatives.

THE CONNECTIVE USE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

243. It has already been pointed out that a relative pronoun occurs only in a complex sentence, and only in a subordinate clause of a complex sentence. We must now see **the connective use of the relative.** The sentence, "I like boys, *who* are the men of to-morrow," is equivalent to, "I like boys, *and they* are the men of to-morrow." It is seen that *who* performs the office of the two words, *and* and *they*. That is, it has the *substantive use* of all pronouns, and in addition it has the *connective use* of the conjunction. It should, therefore, be called **conjunctive pronoun.** It is thought best for the present to use *relative* and *conjunctive* interchangeably as applied to pronouns.

(*a*) **The connective use** *of a relative pronoun is to join its subordinate clause to its antecedent.*

(*b*) **To be remembered**: *the relative pronoun occurs only in the subordinate sentence and is governed by some word in the subordinate sentence; the antecedent occurs only in the principal sentence and is governed by some word in the principal sentence.*

(*c*) *When the pronoun* **it** is the subject of a copulative verb, it is often modified by a relative clause that follows the predicate ; as, —

(1) *It* is the tree *that frightens my horse.*

(2) *It* is I *that calls him.*

(3) *It* is you *that is to blame.*

The three sentences are evidently the respective answers to the questions: —

(1) What is *it that frightens my horse?*

(2) Who is *it that calls him?*

(3) Who is *it that is to blame?*

244. If the first sentence is regarded as the answer to the question, What tree is it? then, the relative clause, *that frightens my horse*, must be construed with *tree.*

245. In all such sentences we must be guided by the meaning and construe the clause accordingly. It is not uncommon for speakers, writers, and even grammarians to mistake the force of such clauses. In most cases they belong with the subject, *it; it* is the antecedent of the relative, and the verb in the clause should therefore be *third person, singular* instead of agreeing in person and number with the predicate noun or pronoun.

THE CONSTRUCTION OF A RELATIVE PRONOUN.

246. A relative pronoun may have any dependent nominative or objective construction except apposition. It may be possessive, limiting a substantive of different signification, or used as the subject of a participle having a dependent substantive use. *Discuss the following illustrations: —*

247. Nominative Constructions: —

(1) *Subject of a finite verb*, — The boy *that came* is George.

(2) *Complement of a finite copula*, — The boy *that* you *are* will win.

248. Objective Constructions: —

(1) *Object of a transitive verb*, — George is a boy *that* I *like.*

(2) *Object of a preposition*, — The boy *that* I spoke *to* is George.

(3) *Subject of an infinitive*, — The boy *that* I thought *to be* you is George.

(4) *Complement of an infinitive copula*, — The boy *that* I thought you *to be* is George.

249. Possessive Constructions : —

(1) *Limiting a noun of different signification*, — The boy *whose father* came is George.

(2) *Subject of a participle*, — The boy *whose coming* surprised his father is George.

(*a*) **No relative pronoun** *is ever in apposition or in any absolute construction.*

(*b*) In the illustrations given above only the relative *that* is used, *whose* being the possessive of *that*, and the clauses are all *restrictive. The teacher should permit each pupil to illustrate these constructions, using* **who** *and* **which** *in* **explanatory clauses.**

THE PARSING OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. (1) A house *that* is built on the sand will fall.

That, pronoun, conjunctive, simple, antecedent, *house*, with which it agrees in third person, singular number, neuter gender, Rule XIV., nominative case, subject of *is built*, Rule I.

251. (2) *Whoever* listens will hear.

Whoever, pronoun, relative, compound, antecedent [he], with which it agrees in third person, singular number, masculine gender, Rule XIV., nominative case, subject of *listens*, Rule I.

252. (3) I shall accept *what* he offers = I shall accept the *thing that* he offers.

What, pronoun, relative, double, = to the *thing that.*

Thing, the antecedent part, noun, common, third person, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, object of *shall accept*, Rule IV.

That, the relative part, pronoun, relative, simple, antecedent, *thing*, with which it agrees in third person, singular number, neuter gender, Rule XIV., objective case, object of *offers*, Rule IV.

(*a*) Let pupils state orally the principal sentence, and the clause; also, the antecedent and the relative and their constructions.

EXERCISES FOR PARSING.

253. Write the full parsing of all italicised words, and give orally the case and construction of all other words designated by the teacher or class. Be careful to distinguish the **double relative what** from the **indirect interrogative what.** Designate each **principal sentence**, each **subordinate clause**, each **antecedent**, and each **relative pronoun.** Tell whether the clause is **restrictive** or **explanatory**, and **why.** State definitely the **connective use** of the relative pronoun. Read to teacher and class **grammar references on all questionable constructions.**

(1) The obstacles *that* lie in our way give us strength.
(2) The good *that* we do to others helps us.
(3) He is the man of *whom* you spoke.
(4) The earth, *which* God created, is the home of his children.
(5) Homer, *whom* we believe to have been the author of the Iliad, was a blind poet.
(6) Martha is the girl *that* Henry said Susan thought was Hazel.
(7) Hazel is the girl *that* Henry thought Susan said Martha was.
(8) Susan is the girl *that* Hazel said Henry thought to be Martha.
(9) Henry says Hazel is the girl *that* Susan thought Martha to be.
(10) *What* one attempts is not always *what* one accomplishes.
(11) *Whatever* he can prove to be his he takes.
(12) I asked *what* he did.
(13) I saw *what* she did.

254. *Fill the blanks with* **who** or **whom**, *designating by number the* **rule** *illustrated. Tell whether each word supplied is a* **conjunctive** *or an* **interrogative** *pronoun. Name the* **antecedents.** *Designate the* **principal sentences** *and the* **subordinate clauses.** *Tell whether the clause is* **restrictive** *or* **explanatory.** *State the* **connective use** *of each conjunctive pronoun. Note the* **verb** *in the clause. When possible, change a finite verb to an infinitive or an infinitive to a finite verb, noting carefully the case and construction of every substantive both before and after the change.*

(1) The man —— was with me was Mr. Black.
(2) —— guessed —— I called ?
(3) She admires that man, —— we know to be worthless.
(4) —— do men say that I am ?
(5) —— does she think to be you ?
(6) —— do you think to be her ?
(7) —— do you think is I ?
(8) —— do you think I am ?
(9) She is the lady, —— you supposed to be us.
(10) She is the lady, —— you supposed us to be.
(11) She is the lady, —— was thought to be I.
(12) She is the lady, —— I was thought to be.

SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES.

255. RULE I. — *A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case.*

Men must work and *women* must weep.
Who ever thought *we* should be here ?
The *men who* are prepared get the positions.

(*a*) In applying this rule to the pronoun, **we are liable to error** : —

(1) *When the pronoun is the subject of an objective clause ;* as, —

He thought Mary and *me* won. (*I*)
Whom does she think is successful ? (*Who*)
He is the boy *whom* we said would fail. (*who*)

(2) *When the verb is omitted ;* as, —

He is older than *me*. (*I*)

(*b*) *The subject of a finite verb may be*, —

(1) *A noun*, — *Grammar* is difficult.
(2) *A pronoun*, — *Who* knows where *she* put the book *that* lay here ?
(3) *An infinitive*, — *To live* is more than *to exist.*
(4) *A participle*, — *Living* is more than *existing.*
(5) *A clause*, — *Why he did it* is a mystery.

(*c*) **It** as the subject sometimes is followed by an infinitive phrase or a clause in apposition with it ; as, —

It is difficult *to solve the problem.*
It is possible *that he may win.*

(*d*) *The introductory expletive*, **there**, is often used to introduce a sentence in which the subject follows its verb; as, —

There appeared a stranger *sight.*

256. RULE II. — *The subject of an infinitive is in the objective case when it does not depend upon any other word.*

(1) She wishes *us* to learn.

(2) *Whom* do you wish to have your money?

(3) She is the girl *whom* they thought to be me.

(*a*) **The subject of an infinitive may be**, —

(1) A *noun*, — We expected *Alfred* to come to us.

(2) A *pronoun*, — We expected *him* to come to us.

Whom do you expect to come to us?

The man *whom* you expect to come to us is Alfred.

(3) *Another infinitive*, — He thinks *to make* a noise to be to sing.

(4) A *participle*, — He thinks *making* a noise to be singing.

(5) A *clause*, — He thinks *that I made one mistake* to be evidence that I cannot be trusted.

(*b*) This rule is often violated when the subject of an infinitive is a noun and a pronoun; as, —

George believes *Henry* and *I* to be mistaken. (*me*)

(*c*) The infinitive may usually be known by the sign *to* before it, but the sign is nearly always omitted after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *do*, *have*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *see;* as, —

Make him *be* still.

We heard him *say* it.

I saw him *do* it.

257. As the rule implies, the subject of an infinitive may depend upon some other word; when it does, *it is always governed by that other word, not by the infinitive.* Thus, **the subject of an infinitive may be also**, —

(1) *The subject of a finite verb;* as, —

She wishes to learn.

Who wishes to have your money?

We know *who* wishes to have your money.

She is the girl *who* was thought to be I.

(2) *The complement of a copulative verb;* as, —

He is a *man* to be avoided.

(3) *In apposition;* as, —

Jones, the *man* to be employed, is capable.

258. RULE III. — *When the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the possessive case or nominative absolute: possessive when the participle is used as a noun in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle with its subject is used independently.*

259. As the rule implies, the subject of a participle may depend upon some other word; when it does, *it is always governed by the other word, not by the participle.* Thus, **the subject of a participle may be also, —**

(1) *The subject of a finite verb;* as, *Robert* falling *broke* the pitcher.

(2) *The object of a transitive verb;* as, We *saw Robert* sitting on a box.

(3) *The complement of a copulative verb;* as, He *is* a *boy* making a great effort.

(4) *The object of a preposition;* as, We sat *by* the *man* holding the camera.

(5) *In apposition;* Bryan, the *man* giving the lecture, is a great orator.

260. In the following sentences, the subjects of the participles, not depending upon any other words, illustrate the rule. The subjects of the participles in (1), (2), and (3) are in the *possessive case;* in (4) and (5) they are in the *nominative absolute case.*

(1) *Peter's* leaving disappointed us.

(2) We object to *your* disturbing us.

(3) We were annoyed by *their* whispering to us.

(4) *Black* having been nominated, we voted for him.

(5) The *general* having been killed, the battle was lost.

261. Discuss the following sentences: —

(1) There is no objection to that *woman's* voting for him.

(2) There is no objection to that *woman* voting for him.

262. The subject of a participle may be, —

(1) A *noun*, — The *carriage* having gone, we walked.

(2) A *pronoun*, — *They* having come, we went home.

(3) An *infinitive*, — *To stand* having been forbidden, we remained seated.

(4) A *participle*, — *Standing* having been forbidden, we remained seated.

(5) A *clause*, — *That he could have committed the crime* having been proved, they inferred that he did commit it.

(*a*) There is not much liability to error in using either nouns or pronouns according to this rule. Its value is chiefly technical.

263. RULE IV. — *The object of an active transitive verb is in the objective case.*

Every poet loves *nature*.

The man hurt *George* and *me*.

Whom does he prefer?

The gentleman *whom* you saw is Riley.

(*a*) Not only finite verbs, but infinitives and participles as well, when active and transitive, govern objects; as, —

The man buying the *potatoes* intends to eat *them*.

(*b*) Intransitive verbs never govern objects.

(*c*) No verb in the passive voice can govern an object.

(*d*) For the *indirect object*, see article 182 *c*; for the *resultant object*, article 186; for the *adverbial objective*, article 185.

264. The object of a transitive verb may be, —

(1) A *noun*, — William caught the *fish*.

(2) A *pronoun*, — We like *him* and *her*.

Whom did he question?

The boy *whom* we all admire is Richard.

(3) An *infinitive*, — You like *to study*.

(4) A *participle*, — He condemns *teasing* the children.

(5) A *clause*, — He believes *we are succeeding*.

(*a*) The rule is violated most frequently when the object of a transitive verb is a noun and a pronoun; as, —

He likes *Henry* and *I* (*me*).

She criticized *Sara* and *he* (him).

265. RULE V. — *A noun or pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case.*

He came from *Rome* to *Paris*, in *company* of many eminent *men*, and passed with *them* through many *cities*.

266. The object of a preposition may be, —

(1) A *noun*, — She placed it on the *table*.

(2) A *pronoun*, — Please go with *us*.

(3) A *participle*, — You help him by *remaining* with him.

(4) An *infinitive*, — She made no preparation except *to read* the lesson.

(5) An *adjective*, — On *high*.

(6) An *adverb*, — From *here* to *there* is ten feet.

(7) A *prepositional phrase*, — He came from *over the sea*.

(8) A *clause*, — We were talking about *who broke the glass*.

(*a*) This rule is often violated when a pronoun together with a noun is used as the object of a preposition; as, She spoke to *Paul* and *I* (*me*).

(*b*) For the *adverbial objective*, see article 185.

(*c*) The relative pronoun *that* precedes the preposition that governs it; as, —

He is the gentleman *that* I sent *for*.

Also, sometimes in poetry and in the inverted order of prose, a preposition may follow its object; as, —

From peak to peak the rattling *crags among*.
His *preparation* we did not inquire *about*.

But ordinarily the preposition precedes its object.

267. RULE VI. — *A noun or pronoun used as the complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject, — except when the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, then the complement is nominative.*

(*a*) The rule itself applies to the *nominative*, the *objective*, and the *absolute* case; by the exception the complement is nominative while the subject is possessive.

268. (1) **Nominative**, —

He is a *farmer*.
If I were *she*, I should try to be *teacher*.
Who are you?
He is the *man that* I thought you were.

269. (2) **Objective**, —

I thought her to be *George*.
She thought him to be *me*.
Whom did they suppose us to be?
She is the lady *whom* I thought Helen to be.

270. (3) **Absolute**, —

The winner being *Brown*, we were all pleased.
The winner being *I*, the others were disappointed.

271. (4) **The Exception,** —

Your being the *winner* pleased us.
Your being *he* does not excuse you.

(*a*) The complement of a copulative verb is always a noun or an adjective or some other expression so used, and is always called the **attributive complement.**

(*b*) The class will be careful to distinguish the *attributive complement*, as in, "Tom is a *horse*," from the *objective complement*, as in, "Tom has a *horse*."

(*c*) Be careful to distinguish *intransitive verbs* that are used as *impure copulas* followed by *attributive complements*, from *transitive verbs* followed by *objective complements;* as in —

He *appears* every inch a *soldier.*
Every minute he *hears* a *soldier.*

(*d*) A transitive verb in the passive voice is often followed by an *attributive complement*, as in, "He *was elected chairman*," but never by an *objective complement.*

272. RULE VII. — *A noun or pronoun in apposition is in the same case as the noun or pronoun it explains.*

273. Apposition *is the use of a substantive, without a connecting element, to limit another in the same case and of the same signification.*

(*a*) The **predicate noun** or **attributive complement** is often mistaken for an *appositive.* They resemble in this: *each is in the same case and of the same signification as the substantive it refers to.* Here is the difference: *The predicate noun has, and the appositive has not, a connecting element to join it to the substantive it refers to.* Compare, —

John is a *lawyer.*
John, the *lawyer*, came.

(*b*) The appositive term is the one that explains the other.

(*c*) The appositive term usually follows the one explained, but may come before it; as, —

Child of the sun, refulgent summer comes. — *Thompson.*

APPOSITION APPLIES TO ALL CASES.

274. (1) **Nominative,** — Matthew, the *merchant*, came.

275. (2) **Nominative Absolute,** — Matthew, the *merchant*, having told us, we believed it.

276. (3) **Possessive,** — That is Matthew the *merchant's* house. See article 178 *d*.

277. (4) **Objective,** — We all like Matthew, the *merchant*.

(*a*) When a noun in the possessive case is limited by another noun in apposition with it, the possessive sign is put to the noun immediately preceding the name of the object possessed; as, —

Bring me John the *Baptist's* head.

(*b*) The *resultant* or *factitive object* should be parsed as in apposition with the direct object; as, —

We chose Gladys *secretary*.
Make me a child again, just for to-night.

278. RULE VIII. — *A noun or pronoun limiting another noun signifying a different thing is in the possessive case.*

Henry's slate was lost.
Jones's house was repaired.

(*a*) The idea of possession may be denoted by the possessive sign, **'s**, or by the **objective case** following the preposition **of**; as, —

The history *of America* (America's history) is interesting.

Which method is used is merely a matter of euphony.

(*b*) Singular nouns and plurals not ending in **s** form their possessive by annexing **'s**; as, —

The *child's* lesson was learned.
The *children's* lessons were learned.

(*c*) Plurals ending in **s** usually form their possessive by annexing only **'**; as, —

Boys' clothing. *Girls'* games. *Birds'* nests.

(*d*) A noun in the possessive case limited by another noun in apposition with it transfers its possessive sign to the appositive; as, —

It is so by the *Judge Bowser's* decision.

(*e*) A noun in the possessive case limited by a prepositional phrase transfers its possessive sign to the object of the preposition ; as, —

The *captain* of the *Alabama's* wife died yesterday.

(*f*) In a pair or series of nouns denoting common possession, the possessive sign is annexed only to the last ; as, —

Black and Blair's Arithmetic. (Together they have one book.)
Black and Blair's Arithmetics. (Together they have more than one.)

(*g*) In a pair or series of nouns denoting separate possession, the possessive sign is annexed to each noun ; as, —

Black's and *Blair's* Arithmetic. (Each has one book.)
Black's and *Blair's* Arithmetics. (Each has more than one.)

(*h*) The *subject of a participle* may also be in the *possessive case*, but this construction has been explained under Rule III.

279. RULE IX. — *A noun or pronoun used independently is in the nominative absolute case.*

(1) **By Exclamation**, — Speaking with feeling the name of a thing thought of ; as, —

The *will*, the *will*, let us hear the will.

(2) **By Address**, — Using a person's name in speaking to him ; as, —

Mr. Spurgeon, may we assist you ?

(3) **By Pleonasm**, — Using a noun before a sentence referring to the same thing ; as, —

The *constitution*, it shall be our guide.

(4) **By Inscription**, — Using a noun, out of sentence relations, on signs, monuments, coins, circulars, letters, or announcements.

(*a*) When the name of a person addressed is put after the sentence, it is impossible to tell whether to parse it as *absolute by address* or in *apposition* with the preceding pronoun ; as, —

I appeal to *you*, *Mr. Chairman.*

(*b*) The *subject of a participle* may also be in the *nominative absolute case*, but this construction has been explained under Rule III.

280. RULE XIV. — *A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.*

(*a*) Most of our nouns are of the *third person*, singular or plural. A noun of the first person is used in only two constructions, — in *apposition with a pronoun of the first person*, and in the *absolute case by inscription.*

(*b*) The person and number of our personal pronouns are nearly always shown by their form : —

I, *my*, *me* are of the first person, singular number.

We, *our*, *us* are of the first person, plural number.

He, *his*, *him* are of the third person, singular number, masculine gender.

She, *her*, *her* are of the third person, singular number, feminine gender.

They, *their*, *them* are of the third person, plural number, and their gender may be masculine, feminine, common, or neuter.

(*c*) Two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor* must be represented by a singular pronoun ; as, —

If she asks for a *penny* or a *pound*, she gets *it*.

(*d*) *The English language has no personal pronoun of the* **third person, singular number, common gender.** To represent such antecedents, usage has sanctioned the use of **masculine pronouns** ; as, —

Every *person* is expected to do *his* (not their) duty.

Several attempts have been made to form a pronoun of the third person, singular number, common gender, but they serve only to provoke smiles. The best usage continues to prefer the masculine forms, or to use the indefinite pronominal adjective, **one**, as the subject and then repeat it instead of the pronoun ; as, —

When *one* plays with the fire, *one* must expect an occasional burn.

(*e*) The pronoun *it* is often preferable to represent the name of an infant or of an animal when we do not care to distinguish the sex ; as, —

The *child* sleeps in *its* cradle.
The *sheep* lost *its* way.

(*f*) *Masculine and feminine pronouns* are used to represent the names of *inanimate objects personified ;* as, —

The *sun* rises in *his* glory.
The *ship* brings *her* cargoes from the east.

(*g*) *A collective noun conveying the idea of unity* must be represented by a pronoun of the *third person*, *singular number*, *neuter gender ;* as, —

The *mob* swept everything in *its* way.

281. *A collective noun conveying the idea of plurality*, that is, *referring to its objects individually*, must be represented by a *plural pronoun*, whose *gender is determined by the sex of the objects denoted ; as*, —

The *class* wear blue and gold caps on *their* heads. See article 155.

A REVIEW OF PRONOUNS.

(1) What is a pronoun? How is a pronoun like a noun? How unlike a noun?

(2) Name the three uses of pronouns and the three corresponding classes. Define each class and give illustrations.

(3) Define *antecedent*. Give illustrations.

(4) Tell when we use the forms *mine*, *ours*, etc., instead of *my*, *our*, etc. Illustrate.

(5) State and illustrate in what order pronouns of different persons should be used.

(6) What are the subclasses of personal pronouns? Illustrate. What are *reflexive* and *intensive* pronouns? Illustrate.

(7) Name the properties of pronouns.

(8) Illustrate each property with each class of pronouns.

(9) What is meant by the *construction* of pronouns?

(10) What is *declension?* Decline a personal pronoun. Use each declined form in a sentence.

(11) What are the two most important parts of speech? Why?

(12) Independently of the book and the teacher, what is your opinion of *parsing?*

(13) What is the value of *filling blanks*, or completing incomplete sentences? Is it better than *parsing*, or not so good? What grammatical exercise is better than either? Why?

(14) Define an *interrogative pronoun*. Name the interrogatives. Use each in a sentence.

(15) Decline each interrogative pronoun. Use each case form in a sentence.

(16) Give a rule for determining the case and construction of an interrogative pronoun. Give illustrations of the rule.

(17) In what cases is an interrogative pronoun used? Illustrate. In which case is it not used?

(18) What interrogative word may be used as a connective?

(19) Distinguish the direct and the indirect interrogative pronoun.

(20) Use each declined form of *who* and *what* as an indirect interrogative pronoun.

(21) In what kind of sentences can a direct interrogative pronoun be used? Illustrate. An indirect interrogative pronoun? Illustrate.

(22) Distinguish an indirect interrogative and a relative pronoun, giving illustrations.

(23) What kind of a clause needs no connective?

(24) What kind of a clause is an indirect interrogative pronoun always found in?

(25) Use such a clause in three nominative and five objective constructions, observing that each clause contains an indirect interrogative pronoun.

(26) In what nominative or objective construction is an interrogative pronoun never used?

(27) Use a direct and an indirect interrogative pronoun in each of the other nominative and objective constructions.

(28) What is a relative pronoun? What would be a more appropriate name for it? Why?

(29) Make four important statements concerning relative pronouns. Illustrate each statement.

(30) Name five relative pronouns. Use each in a sentence.

(31) What may the antecedent of a relative pronoun be? Illustrate.

(32) In what case may the antecedent of a relative pronoun be? Illustrate.

(33) Name and illustrate the three classes of relative pronouns.

(34) Distinguish *who* and *what* as direct interrogative, indirect interrogative, and relative pronouns.

(35) In what are personal and relative pronouns alike? Unlike?

(36) Which of the relative pronouns are indeclinable? Decline each of the others and use each declined form in a sentence.

(37) What kind of objects is referred to by each of the relatives, *who*, *which*, and *that*?

(38) What are the two kinds of relative clauses? Define and illustrate each. How is each to be punctuated? In what kind of clause may we use each of the relatives, *who*, *which*, *that*? How may you determine the kind of relative clause a sentence contains? In writing your own sentences how do you determine which kind of clause to use?

(39) Which relatives may and which may not immediately follow prepositions? Illustrate.

(40) When is *as* a relative pronoun? Illustrate.

(41) Explain and illustrate the connective use of a relative pronoun.

(42) Discuss the following sentence, — **It** *was the pig* **that** *walked the wire.*

(43) What *nominative constructions* may relative pronouns have? *Possessive constructions? Objective constructions?* Illustrate each, using *that* in *restrictive clauses.* Illustrate each, using *who* or *which* in *nonrestrictive clauses.* What constructions may a relative pronoun not be found in?

(44) What are the liabilities to error in applying Rule I.? Illustrate.

(45) What may be the *subject of a finite verb?* Illustrate.

(46) Discuss **it** and **there** as used to introduce sentences.

(47) When is the *subject of an infinitive* in the *objective case?* The *nominative case?* Give illustrations.

(48) What may be the subject of an infinitive? Illustrate.

(49) Use a personal pronoun, a direct interrogative pronoun, an indirect interrogative pronoun, and a relative pronoun, each in the objective case, the subject of an infinitive. Each in the nominative case, the subject of an infinitive.

(50) When is the subject of an infinitive not governed by the infinitive? Illustrate.

(51) When is Rule II. most commonly violated? Illustrate.

(52) When is the subject of a participle governed by the participle? In what case is it? Illustrate.

(53) When is the subject of a participle not governed by the participle? In what case is it then? Illustrate.

(54) What additional constructions may the subject of a participle have? Illustrate.

(55) What may be the subject of a participle? Illustrate.

(56) State Rule IV. Illustrate it with a noun, a personal pronoun, a direct interrogative, an indirect interrogative, and a relative pronoun.

(57) Discuss the *object of an intransitive verb*. The *object of a passive verb*.

(58) What may be the object of a transitive verb? Illustrate.

(59) When are we most likely to violate this rule? Illustrate.

(60) Use the word *musician* as a **direct object**, or **accusative objective**; **indirect object**, or **dative objective**; **resultant**, or **factitive object**. Use some other noun as an **adverbial objective**, or **objective without a governing word**.

(61) In what case is the object of a preposition?

(62) What may the object of a preposition be? Illustrate.

(63) When are we most likely to violate Rule V.? Illustrate.

(64) Use as the object of a preposition, — *a noun*, a *personal pronoun*, a *direct* and an *indirect interrogative pronoun*.

(65) Use in this construction, the relative pronouns, **who**, **which**, and **that** in *restrictive clauses*, and **who** and **which** in *explanatory clauses*.

(66) Which of the relatives may, and which may not, immediately follow the prepositions that govern them? Illustrate.

(67) State the rule for the case of the complement of a copulative verb; state the exception. Illustrate both, giving all the cases reached by the rule and exception.

(68) Use according to this rule, and in each of the cases, a *noun*, a *personal pronoun*, a *direct* and an *indirect interrogative pronoun*, the *relative* **that** in *restrictive clauses*, and the *relatives* **who** and **which** in *explanatory clauses*.

(69) Illustrate and criticize the common violations of this rule.

(70) What is the case of a noun in apposition? What is apposition? Which is the appositive term? What may be an appositive? Illustrate.

(71) What is a *predicate noun?* How are a predicate noun and an appositive alike? How unlike?

(72) To what cases does apposition apply? Illustrate.

(73) State and illustrate the rule governing the possessive case. Tell how the possessive is formed, singular and plural, and give illustrations.

(74) Show how the rule applies to a series of terms denoting common possession. Denoting separate possession. When the possessive term is limited by an appositive or by a prepositional phrase. Illustrate.

(75) Give Rule IX. governing the absolute case. Illustrate four different applications of the rule. What other rule touches the absolute case?

(76) Give the rule for the agreement of a pronoun with its antecedent. Show the application of this rule to each kind of pronoun, —*personal*, *interrogative*, *relative*. Illustrate how Rule XIV. is most commonly violated.

(77) What personal pronoun does the English language lack? What is the best usage with reference to a substitute for such pronoun?

(78) What kind of pronoun follows two or more singular antecedents connected by *or* or *nor?* Illustrate.

(79) What kind of pronoun is used to represent a *collective noun conveying the idea of unity?* Illustrate.

(80) What kind of pronoun is used to represent a *collective noun conveying the idea of plurality?* Illustrate.

THE ADJECTIVE.

282. We have already seen that objects differ so much that it is necessary to put them in different classes and to give them different names; as, *woman*, *lily*, *vine*. We are now to observe that objects belonging to the same class have different *qualities* or *attributes*, which it is often convenient for us to name; and also that many times we wish *to point out* or *refer to* an object, without either naming its qualities or applying a proper name to it. Hence arises another **part of speech**, called the **Adjective**, by which we may refer to an object or designate its qualities.

283. *An* **Adjective** *is a word used to limit a noun or pronoun so as to point out or refer to an object, or to designate quality;* as, *that* flower, *seven* trees, *an* ox, *small* potatoes, *industrious* women, *sour* grapes.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES AS TO MEANING.

284. Since adjectives may mean either *quality* or mere *reference*, there are two general classes of adjectives, *descriptive* and *definitive*.

285. *A* **Descriptive Adjective** *is one that limits a substantive so as to denote quality;* as, *smooth* roads, *beaming* smiles, *warm* clothing, *interminable* forests.

286. *A* **Definitive Adjective** *is one that limits a substantive so as merely to point out or refer to an object without denoting quality;* as, *every* man, *forty* hogs, *yonder* mountain, *an* explanation.

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES AS TO MANNER OF MODIFICATION.

287. The preceding classification is based upon the adjective itself, the idea it expresses. If the adjective is

descriptive, it is not definitive. But according to the present classification, **according to the manner of modification,** the same adjective may belong to any one of three classes.

288. It may modify a substantive directly. It is then a **direct adjective.** It may complete a copula and at the same time modify its subject. It is then a **predicate adjective.** It may modify the direct object in such a way as to express a quality that is the result of the verb's action. Then it is a **resultant adjective.**

289. *A* **Direct Adjective** *is one that modifies a substantive directly;* as, a *sceptical* man, a *furious* animal.

290. *A* **Predicate Adjective** *is one that completes the predicate and modifies the subject;* as, The man is *sceptical*, The animal is *furious*.

291. *A* **Resultant Adjective** *is one that modifies the direct object in such a manner as to express a result of the verb's action;* as, Wrong training made the man *sceptical*, Scolding and whipping made the animal *furious*.

(*a*) A noun in any construction may be modified by a *direct adjective.*

(*b*) A *predicate adjective* always modifies the subject and completes the predicate.

(*c*) *Resultant adjectives* are often called *factitive adjectives.*

(*d*) Every resultant adjective modifies the direct object, but not every adjective that modifies the direct object is resultant.

(*e*) Since a resultant adjective always modifies a direct object, it always follows an active verb; when the verb is changed to the passive voice, the resultant adjective changes to a predicate adjective; as, —

He drew the line *straight*, The line was drawn *straight.*

SUBCLASSES OF ADJECTIVES.

292. Descriptive adjectives have the subclasses: —

(1) *Common*, any ordinary quality word, — *cold*, *long.*

(2) *Proper*, derived from a proper name, — *Turkish*, *Italian.*

(3) *Participial*, derived from a verb, — *vacillating*, *deceiving.*

293. **Definitive adjectives** have the subclasses: —

(1) *Articles*, *a*, *an*, *the*.

(*a*) *The* is the *definite* article; *a* or *an*, the *indefinite* article.

(2) *Pronominals*, those that may be used substantively; as, *One* sometimes sets out to do what later *one* would not wish done.

(3) *Numerals*, those denoting number, — *four*, *thirty*, *seventh*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

294. It would be impossible to enumerate the qualities of objects. Most qualities exist in different degrees. Some men are *strong*, others *stronger*, and yet others *not so strong*. How many degrees of strongness are there? An infinite number. So of any other quality that is variable. Language is able to express only a few of these different degrees of any quality. The adjective itself, by varying its form, can express only five degrees; as, —

least strong, *less strong*, *strong*, *stronger*, *strongest*.

This variation in the form of the adjective is called *comparison*.

295. **Comparison** *is a variation in the form of the adjective to express different degrees of quality;* as, —

heavy, *heavier*, *heaviest*, or *heavy*, *less heavy*, *least heavy*; *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*, or *beautiful*, *less beautiful*, *least beautiful*.

DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

296. There are three degrees of comparison, — *positive*, *comparative*, *superlative*.

297. *The* **Positive** *is the simple form of the adjective, used when the object is not compared with any other with respect to this quality;* as, —

warm weather, *commendable* acts, *uncertain* signs.

298. *The* **Comparative** *is the form of the adjective that expresses a higher or lower degree than the positive, used when two objects are compared;* as, —

warmer weather, *more commendable* acts, *more uncertain* signs, or *less warm* weather, *less commendable* acts, *less uncertain* signs.

299. *The* **Superlative** *is the form of the adjective that expresses the highest or lowest degree, used when any number of objects more than two are compared;* as, —

warmest weather, *most commendable* acts, *most uncertain* signs, or *least warm* weather, *least commendable* acts, *least uncertain* signs.

(*a*) It will be noted that, since there are two comparatives and two superlatives, the three degrees of comparison express five degrees of quality.

KINDS OF COMPARISON.

300. Any quality that varies upward may also vary downward. We have, therefore, *two kinds of comparison:* —

Ascending, — *objectionable, more objectionable, most objectionable.*

Descending, — *objectionable, less objectionable, least objectionable.*

METHODS OF COMPARISON.

301. There are *three methods of comparison:* —

(1) **By different terminations;** as, *sharp, sharper, sharpest.*

(2) **By different words;** as, *good, better, best.*

(3) **By prefixes;** as, *fortunate, more fortunate, most fortunate,* or *fortunate, less fortunate, least fortunate.*

(*a*) Descending comparison is always by the prefixes *less* and *least;* the other methods apply only to ascending comparison.

(*b*) In ascending comparison most monosyllables are compared by the terminations *er* and *est*, and most words of more than one syllable are compared by the prefixes, *more* and *most*. There are exceptions, however, which the student will learn in literature.

(*c*) There are several words which in their strict signification express qualities that exist in but one degree, but which in a looser signification are used to express the quality as varying; as, *fuller*, *rounder*, *most perfect*. Such forms are used by our best writers.

(*d*) The termination *ish* is sometimes given to an adjective, forming what has been called the *diminutive degree*, lower than the positive and yet different from the *lower comparative* or the *lower superlative;* as, *reddish*, *bluish*, *greenish*.

MODEL FOR PARSING ADJECTIVES.

1. Part of Speech.
2. Class.
3. Comparison.
4. Degree.
5. Construction.
6. Rule.

The earliest flowers are not always *sweetest*.

302. The, adj., defin., definite article, limits *flowers*, R. X.

303. Earliest, adj., des., — early, earlier, earliest, — super. degree, and limits *flowers*, R. X.

304. Sweetest, adj., des., predicate, — sweet, sweeter, sweetest, — superlative degree, and limits *flowers*, R. X.

SELECTIONS FOR WRITTEN PARSING.

(1) *Old* England has produced *great* poets.
(2) He thought of his sister, *proud* and *cold*,
And his mother *vain* of her rank and gold.
(3) Failures may be *valuable*, and successes *dangerous*.
(4) *The summer* breezes blow *soft* and *cool*.
(5) He cooks *rare* meat.
(6) He cooked *the* meat *rare*.
(7) *The* meat was cooked *rare*.
(8) He painted a *red* barn.
(9) *The* barn was painted *red*.
(10) He painted *the* barn *red*.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

305. All misuses of adjectives are included under *choice*, *number*, *comparison*, *position*.

306. Choice of Adjectives. — *First determine the meaning to be conveyed and then select the adjective that best expresses it.*

(*a*) Make frequent use of a good dictionary. Learn exact meanings of words, their synonyms and antonyms. If you find that you have a few adjectives which you use too frequently, enlarge your vocabulary. Select a list of adjectives you have never used, learn their exact meanings, make an effort to express these meanings in conversation and in your compositions. After doing this consciously for a while one will find that the new adjectives have become a permanent part of his vocabulary, and he will then use them without effort.

(*b*) Avoid such pet adjectives as *awful*, *lovely*, *nice*, *splendid*, *elegant*, *terrible*, *grand*, *bad*, except when you wish to express their proper meanings.

(*c*) Do not use *good* for *well*, *less* for *fewer*, or *both* with *same* or *alike;* as, *both the same*, *both alike.*

(*d*) Do not use an adjective for an adverb, or an adverb for an adjective; as, *Extreme* bad weather; She looks so *sweetly;* How is your brother? Very *nicely*, thank you.

307. The Number of an Adjective. — In an inflected language adjectives agree with their nouns in number, gender, and case. We have no trace of this in English except a slight effort on the part of a few adjectives to agree with their nouns in *number*. *These* and *those* are the respective plurals of *this* and *that*.

(*a*) We use *this* and *these* when the object or objects are thought of as being nearer than the object or objects we would denote by *that* or *those*.

(*b*) Avoid the use of *these* or *those* for *this* or *that* before such nouns as *kind*, *sort*, *molasses*.

(*c*) After numerals, it is allowable to use the singular form of such words as *couple*, *pair*, *dozen*, *hundred*, *thousand;* as, *six couple* of promenaders, *ten pair* of shoes, *seven dozen* cherries, *three hundred* head of cattle.

308. Comparison of Adjectives. — We use the *comparative degree* in speaking of *two* objects, and the superlative when we speak of *more than two;* as,—

He is the *taller* of the two.
She is *more beautiful* than her sister.
Socrates was the *wisest* of the Athenians.
She is the *loveliest* of women.

RULES OF COMPARISON.

309. I. *The* **positive degree** *is used when it is not intended to suggest a comparison;* as, —

Eve was a *fair* woman.

310. II. *The* **comparative degree** *is used when the object it refers to is not included among those with which it is compared;* as, —

Eve was *fairer* than any of her daughters.

311. III. *The* **superlative degree** *is used when the object referred to is one of those with which it is compared;* as, —

Eve was the *fairest* of women.

(*a*) It would not be correct to say, either, *Eve was the fairest of her daughters*, or, *Eve was fairer than any woman.*

(*b*) Avoid double comparatives and superlatives; as, *more wiser*, *most unkindest.*

312. Position. — *An adjective commonly comes just before the word it limits*, but adjectives may follow their nouns, —

(1) When used as *predicate adjectives;* as, —

The minstrel was *infirm* and *old.*

(2) When the adjective is *resultant* or *factitive;* as, —

She washed the dress *clean.*

(3) When the adjective is *modified by a prepositional or infinitive phrase;* as, —

He wishes a horse *suitable for driving.*
The man hired a clerk *good to look at* but not *to sell goods.*

(4) When the adjective modifies a pronoun; as, —

What else have you?

(5) In poetry; as, —

He thought of his sister *proud* and *cold*.

(*a*) When a noun is limited by both an ordinal and a cardinal adjective, the usage is not uniform. Some writers say, the *first three;* others, the *three first.*

(*b*) An adjective frequently modifies a word not expressed; as, Many [persons] are called, but few [persons] are chosen. Such are pronomial adjectives. Some authors call them *adjective pronouns.*

(*c*) Any expression used substantively may be modified by an adjective. Illustrate.

(*d*) One adjective sometimes seems to modify another; as, She wore a *bright red* hat. It should then be regarded as an adverb.

(*e*) An adjective frequently modifies a noun *as modified by some other word;* as, The merchant keeps *no* cheap goods. The meaning evidently is, not that he keeps *no* **goods**, but that he keeps *no* **cheap goods**.

(*f*) The words *like*, *nigh*, *near*, and *next* are frequently followed by *objectives*. It is better to regard these words as *prepositions*. Formerly they were treated as adjectives, and the following *objectives* were said to be governed by prepositions not expressed.

WRITTEN REVIEW OF ADJECTIVES.

(1) Show why we have adjectives.

(2) Define an adjective.

(3) Name two general classes with reference to meaning. Define each. Illustrate.

(4) Name the three classes with reference to the manner of modification. Define each. Illustrate.

(5) What is comparison? Illustrate.

(6) Why are adjectives compared?

(7) What adjectives are compared?

(8) In how many degrees may a quality exist?

(9) How many of these are expressed by the adjective itself?

(10) When do we use the positive degree? The comparative? The superlative?

(11) Name and illustrate two kinds of comparison.

(12) Name and illustrate three methods of comparison.

(13) Name and illustrate the chief forms of error in the use of the adjective.

(14) Use each of the following adjectives, (1) as **direct**, (2) as **predicate**, (3) as **resultant**: *old*, *cold*, *long*, *clean*, *infirm*, *reckless*, *rich*, *rare*, *right*, *strong*, *mighty*, *faithless*, *innocent*, *beautiful*, *famous*, *furious*, *frantic*, *wild*, *worthy*, *wise*, *mindful*, *mad*, *sick*, *well*, *angry*, *weak*, *acceptable*, *agreeable*, *patient*, *intelligent*, *intelligible*.

(15) Name ten adjectives sometimes misused. Give illustrations of the misuses. Use a suitable adjective in place of each. Make a correct use of each of the misused adjectives.

THE VERB.

(1) Birds *fly*.
(2) Carpenters *build* houses.
(3) The horses *have been shod*.
(4) He *has* my pencil.
(5) Do you expect Gladys *to become* a teacher?
(6) The man *speaking* to you is Dr. Johnson.

313. The italicized words express relations. *Fly*, *build*, *have been shod*, and *has*, **assert** or **affirm** relations; *to become* and *speaking* only **assume** relations. All such words are **verbs.**

314. The Verb *is the part of speech that asserts or assumes relation.*

(*a*) Some grammarians, indeed most of them, exclude infinitives and participles from the class of verbs. They, therefore, define **verbs** as *words that assert*. Reason plays a large part — and should play a larger part — in the classifications of Grammar. High school students are capable of reasoning and of appreciating it. On pp. 155–174 are set forth the reasons for the classification of verbs here submitted. The classification must stand or fall with those reasons.

(*b*) The word *assert* is to be taken in a very wide sense, including questions and commands.

(*c*) We can say of the *verb* what can be said of no other part of speech,— *without it a sentence cannot exist*. Of all the parts of speech, the verb is technically the most difficult and practically the most important, with the pronoun as its close rival in both respects.

(*d*) Other parts of speech — *prepositions*, *conjunctions*, *conjunctive adverbs*, and *relative pronouns* — *express* relation; only *verbs* can *assert* or *assume* it.

(*e*) The verb is not always a single word, but is sometimes a *verb phrase;* as, *can run*, *has gone*, *shall have been discovered*, *to have been taken*, *having been driven*.

(*f*) *The predicate of every sentence must be a verb or contain one, for it is the only part of speech that can predicate.*

(*g*) The verb is difficult. It cannot be made easy, but it is intensely interesting. The student will be richly repaid for the time he spends in mastering it.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

315. To have a complete classification of verbs we must make it upon five different bases, — *relation to subjects*, *relation to objects*, *completeness of predication*, *form*, *and rank*.

316. According to their Relation to Subjects verbs are *finite* or *infinite*. In the sentences, —

I *run*, He *runs*, They *run*,

we note that the *form* of the verbs is modified by the person and number of their subjects. They are **finite verbs**. But in the following sentences, —

He wishes me *to run*, I wish him *to run*, We wish them *to run;*

She saw me *running*, I saw him *running*, We saw them *running*, —

the italicized verbs retain the same form regardless of the person and number of their subjects. They are **infinite verbs**.

317 *A* **Finite Verb** *is one whose form may be modified by the person and number of its subject.*

318. *An* **Infinite Verb** *is one whose form is never modified by the person and number of its subject.*

(*a*) Owing to the very meager inflection of English, the modification of even our finite verbs for person and number, is except in the case of the *verb to be* confined exclusively to the present tense. Illustrate.

(*b*) The two forms of the infinite verb illustrated above, *to become* and *speaking*, are respectively the *infinitive* and the *participle.*

(*c*) Every transitive verb has four infinitives; as, —

to sing, *to have sung*, *to be sung*, *to have been sung;*

and four participles; as, —

singing, *having sung*, *being sung*, *having been sung.*

(*d*) As an intransitive verb cannot be in the passive voice, it has only two infinitives and two participles.

(*e*) Some grammarians of note class infinitives and participles as nouns and adjectives. The reasons for regarding them as forms of the verb are given in articles 483–516.

(*f*) The thorough discussion of infinitives and participles should be deferred till after the class has completed the study of all parts of speech.

319. According to their Action's Relation to Objects. — In the sentences,

The cobbler *patched* the boot,	The girl *sang* a song,
The boot *was patched* by the cobbler,	A song *was sung* by the girl,

the *action expressed by each verb is represented as going across from an agent to an object.* Such verbs are called **transitive**, because *transitive* means *to go across.*

But in such sentences as,—

The glass *glitters*,	He *stands* awkwardly,

while each verb expresses the action of an agent, *it does not represent it as going across to an object.* Such verbs are **intransitive**, because *intransitive* means *not to go across.*

320. *A* **Transitive Verb** *is one that represents the action of an agent as terminating upon an object.*

The dog *caught* a rabbit,	A rabbit *was caught* by the dog.
Fire *burnt* the hay,	The hay *was burnt* by fire.
We *send* the children to school,	The children *are sent* to school by us.
Mr. Jones *buys* cattle,	Cattle *are bought* by Mr. Jones.

321. *An* **Intransitive Verb** *is one that does not represent the action of an agent as terminating upon an object.*

The dog *barks* up the tree,	The rabbit *was running*,
The fire *sparkles* in the chimney,	The hay *rots* in the field.

(*a*) Every verb that takes an object is transitive; but only half of the transitive verbs take objects, since the active form of every transitive verb has its corresponding passive form. See (*b*).

(*b*) *Every verb in the passive voice is transitive, but no verb in the passive voice takes an object.*

(*c*) A verb may be intransitive even when its action terminates upon an object; as, —

He *sent* for the man,	I *leaned* against the post.

If the verb requires the aid of a preposition to represent the termination of its action upon an object, it is intransitive. If, without the aid of a preposition, a verb represents the termination of its action upon an object, it is transitive; as, —

He *sent* the man,	He *leaned* the post,
The man *was sent* by him,	The post *was leaned* by him.

(*d*) Verbs commonly transitive are often intransitive.

(1) *When used to refer the action to no definite object ;* as, —

Charles *speaks*, William *reads*.

(2) *When an active form is used in a passive signification ;* as, —

The instrument *tunes* easily.

(*e*) Verbs commonly intransitive are often transitive.

(1) *When they have objects similar in signification to themselves ;* as, —

I *dreamed* a dream,
She *sang* a song,
He *lived* a noble life.

(2) *When used in a causitive sense ;* as, —

James *trots* his pony.

(3) *When used in a poetic sense ;* as, —

Eyes *looked* love to eyes.

(*f*) A transitive verb expresses *action* only; an intransitive verb may express *action*, *being*, or *state*.

(*g*) Sometimes an intransitive verb in the passive form is made transitive by being compounded with a preposition ; as, —

The property *was disposed of*. We *were laughed at*.

(*h*) In a few cases it may be allowable to regard a preposition or an adverb as a part of the verb in the active form ; as, —

We *should* not *put off* duty, He tried *to get up*,
The man *came to*, I *set up* the stove.

This is done only when the combination expresses a single idea ; as, *put off* = *postpone*, *came to* = *awoke*, *get up* = *arise*. If the combination can be treated as different parts of speech without marring the meaning, it should be done.

(*i*) In such sentences as, —

She laughed *herself* hoarse, He ate *himself* sick,

no very satisfactory disposition can be given of the italicized words following the intransitive verbs. Probably the least unsatisfactory disposition is to regard each as the subject of the infinitive *to be* not expressed.

322. According to their Completeness of Predication. — The two sentences,

He *farms*, and He *is* a farmer,

may convey precisely the same meaning. In the first, however, the predication is completed by the verb *farms*, which both *asserts* and *expresses* the attribute; while in the second, the verb *is* does not complete the predicate, but only *asserts* the attribute that is *expressed* by another word, *farmer*. *Farms* is a verb of *complete predication*, and because it contains the attribute it asserts, it is called an *attributive* verb; *is* is a verb of *incomplete predication*, and because it only couples to its subject an attributive expression, it is called a *copulative* verb.

323. *An* **Attributive Verb** *is one that expresses the attribute it asserts or assumes.*

He *sends* messages,
He *steals*,
She *writes*,

He expects *to preach* sermons,
He wishes *to sing* songs.

324. *A* **Copulative Verb** *is one that asserts or assumes an attribute expressed by some other word or words.*

He *is* a *sender* of messages,
He *is* a *thief*,
She *is* a *writer*,

He expects *to be* a *preacher* of sermons,
He wishes *to be* a *singer* of songs.

(*a*) **The distinction** between attributive and copulative verbs is one of the most perplexing and one of the most important. *It must be mastered.*

(*b*) **All active transitive verbs** are in one sense verbs of *incomplete predication*. They differ from copulative verbs in this: *what completes an active transitive verb is an objective complement*, but *what completes a copulative verb is an attributive complement*. Distinguish with care: —

Isaac *was* a *musician*, and Isaac *saw* a *musician*.
Leo *is* a good *dog*, and Leo *has* a good *dog*.

(*c*) **The complement** of a copulative verb is always a *substantive* or an *adjective*, or some other expression so used. It may be a *noun*, *pronoun*, *adjective*, *infinitive*, *participle*, *phrase*, or *clause*. *Allow the class to illustrate.*

(*d*) **The predicate** always includes a copula and an attribute, whether the two are expressed together or separately; as, —

Henry *teaches* = Henry *is* a *teacher*.

The predicate is always a verb or contains one, since it is the only part of speech that can predicate.

(*e*) **Many verbs in the passive voice** may be used as copulas; as, —

He *was elected* chairman. She *was considered* honest.

(*f*) **Although the verb to be** is the only pure copula, it is often purely attributive. It is *copulative* when it asserts or assumes an attribute expressed by some other word or words, and *attributive* when it denotes merely *to exist*. In Whatever *is*, *is* right, the first *is* is *attributive* and the second *copulative*. In the two following sentences, all the verbs are attributive, —

(1) Troy *was*, but *is* not now.

(2) What *was*, *is* no more, and what *is will* not *be*.

(*g*) **How to distinguish a Copulative Verb.** — It is often difficult, and sometimes impossible, in isolated sentences, to distinguish the passive voice from the copulative verb *to be* with a *predicate adjective*. For example, in such sentences as, —

The *pitcher was broken*, The *field was plowed*,
The *house was covered*, The *coat was torn*,

we are unable without the context to determine the meaning. Each sentence may be intended to tell the *condition* of some object; in which case we have a *copulative verb* followed by a *predicate adjective*. Or it may refer to an *act* that was done; then we have a transitive verb in the passive voice.

(*h*) **Classes of Copulas.** — The only **pure copula** is some form of the verb *to be;* as, *am*, *is*, *be*, *was*, *were*, *been*, *to be*, *being*. Many other verbs are used as **impure copulas**; as, He *seems* honest, He *looks* tired, He *appears* happy, He *sits* erect. When we combine the two, we have what is called the **complex or double copula**; as, He *seems to be* well, He *was considered to be* reliable.

(*i*) **Uses of the Verb *to be*.** — The verb *to be* has three distinct uses; one as an auxiliary; as, —

He *is* buying a horse;

and two, as a principal verb, either copulative or attributive; as, —

God *is* good, God *is*.

(*j*) **The construction of a phrase** may often be determined by noting the use of the single word that may take its place. Thus, —

He is *without a home* = *homeless*, *adjective;*
He is *in health* = *well*, *adjective*.
He is *in Texas* = *there*, *adverb*.

(*k*) **An attributive verb may often be expanded** into a copula and an attributive complement, as, —

He *sells* clothing = He *is* a *seller* of clothing ;
She *giggles* = She *is* a *giggler*.

325. According to their Form verbs are **regular** or **irregular**, and **strong** or **weak**.

326. The Principal Parts *of a verb are the forms of it from which all its other forms are obtained.* They are the *present indicative*, *past indicative*, and *past participle*.

327. Present Indicative, — the simple form of the verb, the form always found in the dictionary ; as,

am, *see*, *plow*.

328. Past Indicative, — the form of the verb used to represent past time indefinitely ; as,

was, *saw*, *plowed*.

329. Past Participle, — the form of the verb that expresses time more definitely than the Past Indicative, by relating it to some other time, — past, present, or future, — implied by the sentence; as, —

been, *seen*, *plowed*.

330. The examples given above show that some verbs form their past indicative and past participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to *ed* ; as, *plow*, *plowed*, *plowed ; move*, *moved*, *moved ; plant*, *planted*, *planted ; kill*, *killed*, *killed*. These are called *regular verbs*.

331. The verbs that do not form their past indicative and past participle in this way are called *irregular verbs*.

332. *A* **Regular Verb** *is one that forms its Past Indicative and Past Participle by changing the ending of the Present Indicative to* **ed**.

333. Irregular verbs are of three kinds : —

334. *Complete*, — those having a full set, and only a full set of principal parts ; as, *write*, *wrote*, *written ; go*, *went*, *gone*.

335. *Defective*, — those lacking some of the principal parts; as, *beware*, *quoth*, *ought*.

336. *Redundant*, — those having more than a sufficiency of principal parts; as, *strike*, *cleave*.

(*a*) *The present active infinitive* and the *present active participle* are also sometimes named as principal parts; as, *to be*, *to ring*, *to laugh*; *being*, *ringing*, *laughing*.

(*b*) The *past participle* is often called the *perfect participle*, and another name for the *past indicative* is the *imperfect*.

(*c*) The final *e* of the present indicative must be dropped before *ed* is added to form the *past indicative* and *past participle*, as in case of the verb *move*.

337. Strong and Weak Verbs. — According to their form, verbs are classified into **strong** and **weak**.

338. *A* **Strong Verb** *is one that forms its past indicative and past participle by varying the root vowel;* as, *steal*, *stole*, *stolen*; *sing*, *sang*, *sung*; *break*, *broke*, *broken*.

339. *A* **Weak Verb** *is one that forms its past indicative and past participle by adding* **ed**, **d**, *or* **t** *to the present indicative;* as, *mash*, *mashed*, *mashed*; *hear*, *heard*, *heard*; *feel*, *felt*, *felt*.

(*a*) Commonly, but not always, the past participle of a strong verb ends in **en**.

(*b*) The classification of verbs into *weak* and *strong* corresponds closely but not completely with that into *regular* and *irregular*. All strong verbs are irregular, but not all irregular verbs are strong. Illustrate. Also, all regular verbs are weak, but not all weak verbs are regular. Illustrate.

(*c*) **Why called strong and weak.** — Originally all our verbs were irregular; but there has been a tendency for them to form their past indicative and past participle by changing the ending of the present indicative to *ed*, *d*, or *t*. Those that have yielded to the tendency, including all regular verbs and many others, are called **weak verbs**; those that have withstood the tendency, including most of our irregular verbs, are called **strong verbs**.

340. The Conjugation of a Verb includes the naming and designating its principal parts; as, —

Present Indicative, *move, ring, do, take.*
Past Indicative, *moved, rang, did, took.*
Past Participle, *moved, rung, done, taken.*

341. The following lists include the irregular verbs most commonly used. It is very important to be able to use irregular verbs correctly. Their mastery is a matter of memory and practice. The first list includes verbs whose past indicative and past participle are different; the second list, those whose past indicative and past participle are alike. It is in using verbs of the first list that error is most likely to occur.

(*a*) For verbs not listed here and for listed verbs having two forms for one of the principal parts the student must consult a dictionary.

(*b*) The best method of acquiring a correct use of irregular verbs is the repetition of their different forms in spoken and written sentences. Let the class urge the teacher to assign an abundance of such exercises. Every time a pupil is asked to name the principal parts of a verb, he should be permitted also to use each form in a sentence.

(*c*) In case where more than one form is sanctioned, the one supposed to represent the best modern usage is placed first, and if marked *r*, it has also a regular conjugation.

1. The Two Past Forms Different.

Present.	*Past Ind.*	*Past Part.*
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Bear,	bore,	born.
Bear,	bore,	borne.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, / beat.
Become,	became,	become.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.
Beget,	begot, / begat,	begot, / begotten.
Begin,	began, / begun,	begun.
Bid,	bade, / bid,	bidden, / bid.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, / bit.
Blow,	blew,	blown, *r.*
Break,	broke,	broken.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Come,	came,	come.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten.

Present.	*Past Ind.*	*Past Part.*
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Get,	got,	got, / gotten.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hide,	hid,	hidden.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lie,	lay,	lain.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Run,	ran,	run.
See,	saw,	seen.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shrink,	shrank, / shrunk,	shrunk, / shrunken.
Sing,	sang, / sung,	sung.
Sink,	sank,	sunk.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Slide,	slid,	slidden, *r.*
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Spring,	sprang, / sprung,	sprung.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Stride,	strode,	stridden.
Strike,	struck,	struck, / stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striven, *r.*
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Swim,	swam, / swum,	swum.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Thrive,	throve,	thriven, *r.*
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven, *r.*
Write,	wrote,	written.

2. The Two Past or the Three Forms Alike.

Present.	*Past Ind.*	*Past Part.*
Abide,	abode,	abode, *r.*
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Bend,	bent,	bent, *r.*
Bereave,	bereft,	bereft, *r.*
Bet,	bet,	bet, *r.*
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Bless,	blest,	blest, *r.*
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built,	built, *r.*
Burn,	burnt,	burnt, *r.*
Burst,	burst,	burst, *r.*
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught,	caught.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Deal,	dealt,	dealt.
Dig,	dug,	dug, *r.*
Dream,	dreamt,	dreamt, *r.*
Dress,	drest,	drest, *r.*
Dwell,	dwelt,	dwelt, *r.*
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Gild,	gilt,	gilt, *r.*

Present.	*Past Ind.*	*Past Part.*
Gird,	girt,	girt, *r.*
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Hang,	hung,	hung, *r.*
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt,	knelt, *r.*
Knit,	knit,	knit, *r.*
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Learn,	learnt,	learnt, *r.*
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Light,	lit,	lit, *r.*
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Plead,	plead,	plead.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit,	quit, *r.*
Read,	read,	read.
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Say,	said,	said.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Sell,	sold,	sold.
Send,	sent,	sent.
Set,	set,	set.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone,	shone, *r.*
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit,	slit, *r.*
Smell,	smelt,	smelt, *r.*
Speed,	sped,	sped, *r.*
Spell,	spelt,	spelt, *r.*
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilt,	spilt, *r.*
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Split,	split,	split, *r.*
Spoil,	spoilt,	spoilt, *r.*
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	stove,	stove, *r.*
Stay,	staid,	staid, *r.*
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.
String,	strung,	strung, *r.*
Sweat,	sweat,	sweat, *r.*
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Wake,	woke,	woke, *r.*
Weep,	wept,	wept, *r.*
Wet,	wet,	wet, *r.*
Win,	won,	won.
Wind,	wound,	wound, *r.*
Work,	wrought,	wrought, *r.*
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Beware,	———	———
Can,	could,	———
Have,	had (aux'y),	———
May,	might,	———
Must,	must,	———
Ought,	ought,	———
———	quoth,	———
Shall,	should,	———
Will (aux'y),	would,	———

342. According to their Rank. — In the sentences, —

I see, I do see, I can see, I shall see,

the action is expressed by the verb *see*, and the verbs *do*, *can*, *shall*, only assist the verb *see*. Because they are thus used to aid other verbs, they are called *auxiliary verbs*, while verbs that may be used either with or without auxiliaries are *principal verbs*.

343. Auxiliary Verbs *are those used to assist other verbs in expressing property or modification.*

344. Principal Verbs *are those that may be used either with or without auxiliaries.*

(*a*) The auxiliary verbs are *be* and *have* in all their forms: *do*, *did*; *may*, *might*; *can*, *could*; *must*; *will*, *would*; *shall*, *should*.

(*b*) *Be* and *have* in all their forms; *do*, *did*, *will*, and *would* may be used also as principal verbs; as, —

She *does* the work. I *did* it.

Will me your property. I *would* that I had any property.

345. It is helpful to note definitely the idea which the auxiliary helps the principal verb express in each particular sentence. It may assist the principal verb in expressing many ideas, but the chief ones are, —

(1) **Progression**: The men *are building* the barn.
(2) **Passivity**: The barn *was built*.
(3) **Time**: They *were building*. They *are building*. They *will build*.
(4) **Emphasis**: You *do build*. You *did build*.
(5) **Power** or **Ability**: We *can build*.
(6) **Completion**: We *have built* the barn.
(7) **Permission**: You *may build* my barn.
(8) **Probability** or **Possibility**: He *may build* it.
(9) **Reasonableness**: It *might be built*.
(10) **Compulsion**: You *shall build* it.
(11) **Necessity**: You *must build* it.
(12) **Duty**: He *should build* it.
(13) **Willingness**: We *would build* it if we could.
(14) **Adaptation**: This lumber *will do* for the building.
(15) **Tendency**: In time the building *will fall*.
(16) **Question**: *Will* you *build* it? *Shall* we *build* it?

(17) **Determination, Promise,** or **Command**: I *will build* it. You *shall build* it. Thou *shalt* not *build* it.

IDEAS EXPRESSED BY AUXILIARY VERBS.

346. **Do** and **did** are used chiefly for emphasis; as, You *do* trust him. You *did* trust him.

347. **Can** in the present and **could** in the past express power or ability; as, I *can* lift it. He *could* lift it.

348. **May** in the present and **might** in the past express liberty or permission; as, You *may* have it. You *might* use it.

(*a*) *Might* sometimes expresses possibility; as, It *might* have been; and *may*, probability; as, It *may* rain.

(*b*) *May* placed before the subject asks a question or expresses a wish; as, *May* I remain? *May* you always succeed.

(*c*) *Can* is often incorrectly used for *may*; as, *Can* I use your pencil? *Can* George sit by me?

349. **Must** expresses necessity, — physical, intellectual, or moral; as, —

Men *must* work, and women *must* weep.
We *must* accept his conclusion.
We *must* tell the truth.

SHALL AND *WILL, SHOULD* AND *WOULD.*

350. These words are often misused, but the difficulty of using them correctly has been exaggerated. The following principles are very simple, and they will guide us in most cases: —

(1) **Shall** *or* **will** *always expresses* **futurity**.

(2) *In addition to* **futurity**, *either* **shall** *or* **will** *may express also the additional idea of* **determination, command,** *or* **promise**.

(3) *The speaker or writer will first determine from his* **thought** *whether he wishes to express merely* **futurity** *or this idea together with* **determination, command,** *or* **promise**. *Then by remembering* (4) *and* (5) *he will know whether to use* **shall** *or* **will**.

(4) **Shall** *in the first person expresses only* **futurity**; *in the second and third it expresses also* **determination, command,** *or* **promise**; as,

I *shall* see you to-morrow. You *shall* have a good time. Thou *shalt* not lie. He *shall* regret it.

(5) **Will** *in the second or third person expresses only* **futurity**; *in the first it expresses also* **determination, command**, or **promise**; as, You *will* understand it. He *will* explain it to you. I *will* not submit to such treatment.

(6) *When the sense demands such a change in tense, use* **should** *for* **shall**, *and* **would** *for* **will**; as, We *would* help you if we could. You *should* always do your best.

(*a*) In speech it is good form for one not to express his determination oftener than necessary. "I *shall* attend to the matter," and "You *will* remember it," are often more forcible than "I *will* attend to the matter," and "You *shall* remember it."

(*b*) **In interrogative sentences,** *shall* denotes that the act is under the volition or control of some power other than the agent, and *will* implies that the act is under the control of the agent: —

Shall I do it? *Shall* you do it? *Shall* he do it? *Will* you do it? *Will* he do it?

In a question, *will* is never used literally in the first person, for the speaker never has occasion to inquire of any one else concerning his own will. Rhetorically, however, *will* may be used in the first person with fine effect. The figure is *Interrogation*, according to which a sentence having the form of a question is in reality a very positive declaration. If the question contains a negative particle, it implies an affirmative answer, and without such a particle it suggests a negative answer. Thus, "*Will* I *not* reprove him?" means "I certainly *shall* reprove him;" and "*Will* I allow him to continue?" means "I certainly *shall not* allow him to continue."

(*c*) *Will* is often used in the third person to make a general truth more emphatic than the present tense form of the verb would make it: Roses *will* wither. Mistakes *will* occur.

(*d*) When the verb is in the subjunctive mode, *shall* in any person denotes only futurity; as, If he *shall* remain till Saturday. But in, He *shall* remain till Saturday, *shall* expresses *futurity*, and also the determination of the speaker.

(*e*) Many a sentence in which *will* or *would* is correctly used requires *shall* or *should* when an adjective or adverb is added to express the additional idea contained in *will* or *would*. Thus, "I *will* accompany you," expresses the idea of *futurity*, and the additional idea of the *speaker's pleasure;* but when we add an adjective or an adverb to express the *speaker's pleasure*, then *will* should be changed to *shall;* as, "I *shall* be pleased to accompany you," or "I *shall* gladly accompany you." "I *will* be pleased to accompany you" is incorrect. It would mean, if anything, that it would require an effort for the speaker to be pleased.

MODEL SENTENCES.

(1) I *will* take it = futurity + determination.
(2) You *shall* take it = futurity + determination.
(3) He *shall* take it = futurity + determination.
(4) I *shall* take it = futurity.
(5) You *will* take it = futurity.
(6) He *will* take it = futurity.

(*a*) Observe closely for a while how *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would* are used in literature, and try to use these words in the same manner in your own speech and writing.

PROPERTIES OF VERBS.

351. The verb has several modifications enabling it to express corresponding differences of thought or idea. These modifications are called **properties.**

352. A verb may be used so that *its subject stands for the doer of an act*, or it may be used so that *its subject stands for the receiver of an act*, as in, —

(1) The *man makes* boxes.
(2) *Boxes are made* by the man.

This distinction or property of verbs is **voice.**

353. It has been explained that *every sentence expresses a thought* and that *every thought refers to a reality.* We have now to note that sentences differ as to the *manner in which they relate thought to reality.* This property is **mode.**

354. A sentence may *declare the fact* of agreement between thought and reality; as, —

He *sings.* He *does* not *sing.* — **Indicative Mode.**

355. A sentence may express the idea of *will* as determining the relation between thought and reality; as, —

Study your lessons. — **Imperative Mode.**

356. A sentence may express, (*a*) *doubt as to the agreement*, or (*b*) *certainty as to the disagreement*, between thought and reality; as, —

If he *studies* he will learn. If he *had studied* he would have learned. — **Subjunctive Mode.**

357. Verbs are inflected to mark differences in *time;* as, —

I *study*, I *studied*, I *shall study.*

This property is **tense.**

358. Verbs vary their form according to the person and number of their subjects; as, —

I *study*, He *studies*, They *study.*

These properties are **person** and **number.**

VOICE.

359. Voice *is the property of the verb that shows whether its subject represents the doer or the receiver of the act.*

There are, therefore, two voices, *active* and *passive.*

360. Active Voice *is the voice in which a verb makes its subject represent the* **doer** *of an act;* as, —

Shakespeare *wrote* Hamlet.
Mrs. Lawson *makes* good butter.
Susan *laughs.*

361. Passive Voice *is the voice in which the verb makes its subject represent the* **receiver** *of an act;* as, —

Hamlet *was written* by Shakespeare.
Good butter *is made* by Mrs. Lawson.

(*a*) **The same thought** may be expressed by the sentence, whether its verb is in the active or the passive: —

Homer *wrote* the Iliad = The Iliad *was written* by Homer.

(*b*) **Only verbs that express action** can properly be said to have voice. This excludes all pure copulative verbs.

(*c*) **An intransitive verb** is in the active voice if it expresses action. *Any verb is in the active voice when its subject represents the doer of an act.* Whether the action terminates on an object or not is another matter.

(*d*) **The active voice is changed to the passive** by making the object in the active become the subject in the passive. Thus, —

The bird *broke* the *bottle* = The *bottle was broken* by the bird.

(*e*) **When the verb is in the active voice,** the noun that represents the doer of the act is its subject, and is in the nominative case, and the noun that represents the receiver of the act is its object, and is in the objective case ; as, The *boy bought* the *trunk.* But **when the verb is in the passive voice,** the noun that represents the receiver of the act is its subject, and is in the nominative case, and the noun that represents the doer of the act is in the objective case, usually governed by the preposition *by ;* as, The *trunk was bought* by the *boy.*

(*f*) **Transitive verbs have the two voices,** while intransitive verbs have only the active. An intransitive verb can never be changed to the passive voice, because it has no object in the active to become the subject in the passive.

(*g*) **The elements of the passive voice** are : —

(1) some form of the *verb to be,*
(2) before the *past participle,*
(3) of a *transitive verb.*

(*h*) **It is convenient to use the passive voice,** either when we do not know the actor, or when we wish to conceal the actor ; as, The shawl *was taken* yesterday.

(*i*) **The passive form of transitive verbs** is sometimes used by enallage for the active ; as, The melancholy days *are come* (for *have come*).

(*j*) **The active voice is sometimes used by enallage** for the passive ; as, The house *is building* (for *is being built*).

EXERCISES.

362. (1) *Tell the voice of each verb.*

363. (2) *Change the voice, preserving the meaning of the sentence.*

1. God made the world.
2. Henry built the fence.
3. How do you learn your lessons ?
4. The oration was delivered by Bryan.
5. He appears honest.
6. She walks rapidly.

MODE.

364. Mode *is the property of the verb that denotes the manner in which the thought is related to the reality.*

(*a*) **Languages differ** as to the number of their modes.

(*b*) **Mode is a grammatical term.** It does not mean either the manner of the *action* or the manner of the *thought.* **Mode** *is the manner in which the verb expresses the relation between thought and reality.*

FINITE MODES.

365. The different manners in which a finite verb may express the relation between thought and reality may be included under the three modes defined below, — *Indicative*, *Imperative*, *Subjunctive.*

(*a*) In addition to these the *Potential Mode* is commonly named. The fundamental idea of this mode is *power* or *ability*, and it is designated by the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should.* It is simpler, however, to class all these forms under the Indicative Mode, remembering that *may*, *can*, and *must* are *present*, and *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* are *past.*

(*b*) Some teachers prefer to omit mode altogether: *first*, because the forms, which in other languages are an unerring guide, in modern English cannot be relied upon, and *secondly*, because the distinction of mode is one of the most difficult to grasp.

366. Let us try to grasp the distinction underlying mode, keeping in mind that **Mode** *is the manner in which the verb expresses the relation between thought and reality.*

367. By **reality** is meant *anything that exists*, and *any relation between things.* All things exist in relation. To think is to represent in thought the relations of things. **A thought** *is a mental representation of a relation.*

368. Now let us think of a real gate, a pasture gate, whether it is open or shut.

369. (1) I may think of the gate as open when it is open and as not open when it is not open. When a sentence thus expresses a thought as agreeing with the reality it represents, *its verb is in the* **Indicative Mode.**

370. *The* **Indicative** *is the mode in which the verb expresses agreement of thought with reality;* as, The gate *is* open. The gate *is* not open.

(*a*) When the reality is regarded as variable and the thought is uncertain, then the expression takes the form of a question, and the verb is in the indicative mode ; as, *Is* the gate open ?

(*b*) The auxiliary verbs *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* express contingencies corresponding to uncertain realities, and since they express thought as agreeing with reality, the verbs containing these forms are in the *indicative mode*, — *may*, *can*, and *must* being the signs of the present tense, and *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* of the past. Or, if one wishes to do so, he may have a distinct mode, the *Potential*, for these seven forms.

(*c*) The indicative mode is used in principal sentences or in subordinate clauses ; as, The gate *is* open. He says the gate *is* open.

371. (2) We may regard **will** as determining the relation between the thought and the reality. When a sentence thus expresses a thought so that its agreement with reality is a matter of **will**, *its verb is in the* **Imperative Mode.**

372. *The* **Imperative** *is the mode that expresses the idea of* **will** *as determining the relation between thought and reality ;* as, —

(1) *Open* the gate. (2) *Do open* the gate.

373. In sentences like (1) the relation depends upon the *will of the speaker ;* in those like the second, upon the *will of the person addressed.*

(*a*) When the speaker regards himself as addressing an *inferior*, the verb expresses a *command ;* as, *Open* that gate at once. When the speaker conceives the person to whom he speaks to be an *equal*, the verb expresses an *entreaty* or *exhortation ;* as, *Do open* the gate for us. When the speaker regards himself as addressing a *superior*, the verb expresses *supplication* or *prayer ;* as, *Open thou* the gates of life for us.

(*b*) The subject of an imperative verb is usually an unexpressed second person pronoun ; but it may be a noun or pronoun of the third person, or a pronoun of the first person ; as, [you] *Open* the gate. Open *be* the gates. *Be* it open. *Open* we the gates.

(*c*) The imperative mode is used exclusively in principal sentences or in substantive clauses directly quoted ; as, *Open* the gate. He said, " *Open* the gate."

374. (3) Or we may wish to express (*a*) **doubt as to the agreement**, or (*b*) **certainty as to the disagreement**, *between the*

thought and the reality. Then *the verb is in the* **Subjunctive Mode.**

375. *The* **Subjunctive** *is the mode that expresses* (*a*) **doubt as to the agreement,** or (*b*) **certainty as to the disagreement,** *between the thought and the reality;* as,—

(*a*) If the gate *is* open, the cows are out.
(*b*) If the gate *had been* open, the cows would be out.

376. The subjunctive mode has just these two ideas and no others. We must be careful to distinguish them. Note the two sentences. In (*a*) the meaning is that we are *uncertain whether the gate is open* or not, while (*b*) *is* a special way of saying we are *certain the gate had not been open.*

(*a*) In English the subjunctive mode is used only in subordinate sentences. In earlier English the subjunctive mode had distinct forms differing from those of the indicative, but there has been a constant and growing tendency toward the same form for both modes. In the time of Addison we find almost exclusively such forms as, —

If the gate *be* open, the cattle are out.
If he *have* the preparation, he can do the work.

But to-day these forms are the exception. Instead of them we find, eight times out of ten, and in the best English,

If the gate *is* open, the cattle are out.
If he *has* the preparation, he can do the work.

In the King James translation of the Bible the subjunctive forms are retained throughout, but in the Twentieth Century New Testament their places are taken by indicative forms.

(*a*) This passing of the subjunctive form must not be taken to mean the disappearance of the subjunctive mode. *Mode* is not *form*, but *idea* or *meaning*, and this idea or meaning has remained and will remain unchanged.

(*b*) We have one trace of the subjunctive form that is likely to remain in the language, because it marks an important distinction that could not otherwise be made. This is the use of the subjunctive *were* instead of the indicative *was* when we wish to express (*b*), the second idea of the subjunctive mode: "If the gate *were* open, the cows would be coming out." This means that *now the gate is not open.* Here the past

form expresses present time. However, when, we wish to express (*a*) the first idea of the subjunctive mode, we occasionally use *were*, but more often *was:* "If the gate *were* (or *was*) open, the cows went out." Here the past form expresses past tense, and the meaning is that *we are uncertain whether at the past time referred to the gate was open* or not.

(*c*) When the subordinate sentence expresses an *admission*, which is not a subjunctive idea, the verb takes the indicative form and is in the indicative mode. Note the difference: —

If he *is* (or *be*) careless, he will fail (*subjunctive*).
If he *is* careless, he is popular (*indicative*).

(*d*) Commonly but not always the subjunctive mode is preceded by *if*, *though*, *although*, *lest*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, *till*, *until*, *that*. But occasionally the subjunctive mode is used without the sign expressed; as, —

Were I in your place, I should insist upon it.
Had he *sent* me the money, I should have repaid it.

And sometimes, as explained above in (*d*) we may have the sign without the subjunctive mode.

(*e*) The substitution of the indicative form for the subjunctive, when the verb is in the subjunctive mode, has never been, and is not now, nearly so frequent in poetry as in prose.

INFINITE MODES.

377. *The* **Infinitive** *and the* **Participial** *are those modes in which the verb* **assumes** *the action, being, or state, instead of affirming it, and* **retains the same form** *regardless of the person and number of its subject.* (See articles 483–540.)

TENSE.

378. Tense *is that property of the verb by which it denotes the* **time** *of a relation.*

(*a*) While mode has reference to the *manner of expression* and not to the *manner of reality* or of *thought*, *tense denotes the time of a real relation*, not the time of the *thought* or of the *expression.*

379. For convenience time is spoken of as *past*, *present*, and *future.* Corresponding to these we have the three **Primary Tenses**: —

Present, I *give;* **Past**, I *gave;* **Future**, I *shall give.*

380. Each of these primary tenses has a *perfect tense*, thus making three **Secondary Tenses** : —

Present Perfect, *I have given.*
Past Perfect, *I had given.*
Future Perfect, *I shall have given.*

381. *The* **Present** is the tense that denotes present time; as, I *give.*

382. *The* **Present Perfect** *is the tense that may denote any period of past time that extends up to, and ends with, the present;* as, I *have given.*

383. *The* **Past** *is the tense that denotes indefinitely any past time;* as, I *gave.*

(*a*) To locate the action definitely the past tense must be assisted by an adverbial element; as, I gave it *yesterday.* I gave it *before I was asked.*

384. *The* **Past Perfect** *is the tense that denotes the time of any past event more definitely by representing it as completed before the occurrence of some other past event;* as, *I had given* the money when the request was made.

385. *The* **Future** *is the tense that denotes indefinitely any future time;* as, I *shall give.*

(*a*) To locate the action definitely the future tense must be assisted by an adverbial element; as, I shall give it *to-morrow.* I shall give it *when he needs it.*

386. *The* **Future Perfect** *is the tense that denotes the time of any future event more definitely by representing it as completed before the occurrence of some other future event;* as I *shall have given* the money before he asks for it.

FORMS OF THE TENSES.

387. The **Present Tense** has three forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote habitual action, or what is true at all times: I *give.* (2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action is now going on: I *am giving.* (3) The

emphatic form to express a thought with emphasis : I *do give.*

(*a*) The progressive form denotes continuous action.

(*b*) What is known as the *historical present* is often used in the narration of past events to add vividness or animation ; as, "Up *steps* (stepped) the policeman and *places* (placed) us all under arrest."

(*c*) The present is sometimes used instead of the future when the future is thought of as present ; as, —

When he *has* (shall have) his lesson, he may recite.

(*d*) The present tense is used to express general truths, or what is thought of as true at all times ; as, —

God *is* merciful. Mars *is* a planet. The product of the sum and difference *is* equal to the difference of the squares.

388. The **Present Perfect Tense** has two forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote any period of past time extending up to, and ending with, the present : I *have given.* (2) The *progressive form* to denote the continuation of the act through the period of time referred to : I *have been giving.*

389. The **Past Tense** has three forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote indefinitely any past time : I *gave.* (2) The *progressive form* to denote the continuation of an action through any past period not extending up to the present : I *was giving.* (3) The *emphatic form* to express emphasis : I *did give.*

390. The **Past Perfect Tense** has two forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote that the act was completed in a period of past time that extended up to, and ended with, some other specified past time : "I *had given* the money before he asked for it." (2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action continued through the above named period of past time : "I *had been giving* presents before the children came."

391. The **Future Tense** has two forms : (1) The *simple form* to denote indefinitely the time of any future event :

I *shall give.* (2) The *progressive form* to denote the continuation of the act through some period of future time: I *shall be giving.*

(*a*) Both the past tense and the future, when the verb is not assisted by adverbial modifiers, denote time indefinitely.

392. The **Future Perfect Tense** has two forms: (1) The *simple form* to denote that an act will be completed in a period of future time that extends up to, and ends with, some other specified future time: I *shall have given* it before he requests it. (2) The *progressive form* to denote that the action is to continue through the above named period of future time: I *shall have been giving* presents an hour when George calls for his.

SIGNS OF THE TENSES IN EACH OF THE MODES, ACTIVE VOICE.

393. The **Indicative Mode** has six tenses: —

(1) **Present**: *Simple form* of the verb: I *give.*
(2) **Past**: *Past indicative* of the verb: I *gave.*
(3) **Future**: *Shall* or *will* before the *simple form:* I *shall give.*
(4) **Present Perfect**: *Have*, *hath*, *has*, or *hast* before the *past participle:* I *have given.*
(5) **Past Perfect**: *Had* or *hadst* before the *past participle:* I *had given.*
(6) **Future Perfect**: *Shall have* or *will have* before the *past participle:* I *shall have given.*

394. The **Imperative Mode** has one tense: —

(1) **Present**: *Give.*

395. The **Subjunctive Mode** commonly has three tenses, *Present*, *Past*, and *Past Perfect;* but it may be used in any of the six tenses. The signs are the same as in the Indicative.

396. The **Infinitive Mode** has two tenses: —

(1) **Present**: *To* before the *simple form: To give.*
(2) **Present Perfect**: *To have* before the *past participle: To have given.*

397. The **Participial Mode** has two tenses: —

(1) **Present**: the form that ends in *-ing*: *Giving.*
(2) **Present Perfect**: *Having* before the *past participle*: *Having given.*

398. *Let the class change each verb given above to the passive voice without changing its tense.*

PERSON AND NUMBER.

399. Person and Number are the properties according to which the verb changes its form to suit the person and number of the subject: I *teach*, He *teaches*, They *teach.*

(*a*) Person and number belong only to finite verbs. Neither an infinitive nor a participle ever changes its form for the person or number of its subject.

(*b*) As a rule English verbs are modified by person and number only in the present tense, but the verb *to be* is an exception.

400. Style is sometimes named as one of the properties of verbs. There are four styles or forms of the verb: —

(1) **Common**: I *give.* (2) **Progressive**: I *am giving.*
(3) **Solemn**: Thou *givest.* (4) **Emphatic**: I *do give.*

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

401. Inflection is any variation in form that a verb may undergo to indicate *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *person*, *number*, and its *principal parts.*

402. Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of all or any part of a verb's inflection.

Let the class study with care the inflection of the verbs **be**, **have**, and **take**, as given below. This will best enable us to know, from the form of a verb, its *voice*, *mode*, *tense*, *person*, and *number.* It will be helpful also for the pupil to note in each sentence whether the verb is *transitive* or *intransitive*, *attributive* or *copulative*, *active* or *passive.*

INFLECTION OF THE VERB **BE**.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present Indicative, **am**; *Past Indicative*, **was**; *Past Participle*, **been**.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. You are.	2. You are.
3. He, she, or it is.	3. They are.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was.	1. We were.
2. You were.	2. You were.
3. He, she, or it was.	3. They were.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. You will be.	2. You will be.
3. He, she, or it will be.	3. They will be.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. You have been.	2. You have been.
3. He, she, or it has been.	3. They have been.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. You had been.	2. You had been.
3. He, she, or it had been.	3. They had been.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He, she, or it will have been.	3. They will have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Be, or do thou be.	2. Be, or do you, or ye be.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be or am.	1. If we be or are.
2. If you be or are.	2. If you be or are.
3. If he, she, or it be or is.	3. If they be or are.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were or was.	1. If we were.
2. If you were.	2. If you were.
3. If he, she, or it were or was.	3. If they were.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had been.	1. If we had been.
2. If you had been.	2. If you had been.
3. If he, she, or it had been.	3. If they had been.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, To be. *Present Perfect*, To have been.

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Present, Being. *Present Perfect*, Having been.

(*a*) The omitted forms of the solemn style, "thou art," "thou wast," etc., may readily be supplied by the student.

(*b*) The auxiliary verbs, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, may be classed under the Indicative Mode, or, if the teacher prefers, under a separate mode, the Potential.

(*c*) Of the subjunctive tenses, only the three most commonly named are given above, but a verb in any of the six tenses may be in the Subjunctive Mode.

(*d*) Bear in mind that in the past subjunctive we always use *were* if we wish to express (*b*), but that if we wish to express (*a*), we may use

either *were* or *was*. Thus, "If it *were* red, we could see it," means that it is not red. But, "If it *were* (or *was*) red, I was mistaken," means I am doubtful about its color. See article 375.

(*e*) Note that while the past subjunctive, as just explained, sometimes denotes present time, the present subjunctive sometimes refers to future time. In "If I *be* (or *am*) under arrest, I wish to act accordingly," the present subjunctive expresses present time; but in "If I *be eaten* by the heathen, that will end my ministry," the present subjunctive clearly expresses future time.

(*f*) As the verb *be* is never transitive, it has no passive forms.

INFLECTION OF THE VERB **HAVE.**

Principal Parts.

Present Indicative, **have**; *Past Indicative*, **had**; *Past Participle*, **had.**

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have.	1. We have.
2. You have.	2. You have.
3. He, she or it has.	3. They have.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had.	1. We had.
2. You had.	2. You had.
3. He, she, or it had.	3. They had.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have.	1. We shall have.
2. You will have.	2. You will have.
3. He, she, or it will have.	3. They will have.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have had.	1. We have had.
2. You have had.	2. You have had.
3. He, she, or it has had.	3. They have had.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had had.	1. We had had.
2. You had had.	2. You had had.
3. He, she, or it had had.	3. They had had.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have had.	1. We shall have had.
2. You will have had.	2. You will have had.
3. He, she, or it will have had.	3. They will have had.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. Have, or do have.	2. Have, or do have.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I have.	1. If we have.
2. If you have.	2. If you have.
3. If he, she, or it have, or has.	3. If they have.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had.	1. If we had.
2. If you had.	2. If you had.
3. If he, she, or it had.	3. If they had.

PAST PERFECT.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had had.	1. If we had had.
2. If you had had.	2. If you had had.
3. If he, she, or it had had.	3. If they had had.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, **to have.** *Present Perfect*, **to have had.**

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Present, **having.** *Present Perfect*, **having had.**

(*a*) To save space the passive forms of the verb **have** are omitted. *Let the class supply them.*

INFLECTION OF THE VERB **TAKE.**

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present Indicative, **take**; *Past Indicative*, **took**; *Past Participle*, **taken.**

PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I am taken.	1. We are taken.
2. You are taken.	2. You are taken.
3. He, she, or it is taken.	3. They are taken.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I was taken.	1. We were taken.
2. You were taken.	2. You were taken.
3. He, she, or it was taken.	3. They were taken.

FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall be taken.	1. We shall be taken.
2. You will be taken	2. You will be taken.
3. He, she, or it will be taken.	3. They will be taken.

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I have been taken.	1. We have been taken.
2. You have been taken.	2. You have been taken.
3. He, she, or it has been taken.	3. They have been taken.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I had been taken.	1. We had been taken.
2. You had been taken.	2. You had been taken.
3. He, she, or it has been taken.	3. They had been taken.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. I shall have been taken.	1. We shall have been taken.
2. You shall have been taken.	2. You shall have been taken.
3. He, she, or it shall have been taken.	3. They shall have been taken.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
2. You or thou be taken.	2. Be you or ye taken.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I be or am taken.	1. If we be or are taken.
2. If you be or are taken.	2. If you be or are taken.
3. If he, she, or it be or is taken.	3. If they be or are taken.

PAST TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I were or was taken.	1. If we were taken.
2. If you were taken.	2. If you were taken.
3. If he, she, or it were or was taken.	3. If they were taken.

PAST PERFECT TENSE.

Singular.	*Plural.*
1. If I had been taken.	1. If we had been taken.
2. If you had been taken.	2. If you had been taken.
3. If he, she, or it had been taken.	3. If they had been taken.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present, **to be taken.** *Present Perfect*, **to have been taken.**

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Present, **being taken.** *Present Perfect*, **having been taken.**

(*a*) For the inflection in the active voice see the verb **have**, page 124.

(*b*) The class may readily supply the solemn forms, such as, Thou *art taken ;* Thou *hast been taken*, etc.

(*c*) In the passive voice, as in the active, a subjunctive verb may have any of the six tenses. *Let class illustrate, noting carefully whether the sentence expresses* (*a*) *or* (*b*), *the first or the second subjunctive idea.*

(*d*) To save space the active forms of the verb *take* are omitted. *Let the class supply them.*

MODEL FOR PARSING VERBS.

(1) PART OF SPEECH.

(2) CLASSES, (*a*) transitive or intransitive ; (*b*) attributive or copulative ; (*c*) regular or irregular. If irregular, give principal parts.

(3) PROPERTIES, (*a*) voice, (*b*) mode, (*c*) tense, (*d*) person and number.

(4) CONSTRUCTION (agreement with subject).

(5) RULE.

(*a*) Any uses of a verb not stated in the parsing may be brought out by questions and explanations of the teacher and class.

(1) The cold *destroyed* the crops.
(2) We *are* out of employment.
(3) The work *will have been done.*
(4) They *were considered* reliable.

403. (1) **Destroyed**, verb, trans., attrib., reg., act., indic., past, third, sing., to agree with its subj., *cold*, Rule XV.

404. (2) **Are**, verb, intrans., cop., irreg., — am, was, been, — indic., pres., first, plu., to agree with its subject, *we*, Rule XV.

405. (3) **Will have been done**, verb, trans., attrib., irreg., — do, did, done, — pass., indic., future perfect, third, sing., to agree with its subject, *work*, Rule XV.

406. (4) **Were considered**, verb, trans., cop., reg., pass., indic., past, third, plural, to agree with its subject, *they*, Rule XV.

407. (1) *Write the complete parsing of all italicized words.*

408. (2) *When possible, change active verbs to passive, and expand each attributive verb into a copula and an attribute, without changing the meaning of the sentence.*

(1) William *stands* in the corner.
(2) Mary *stands* erect.
(3) Martha *sits* erect.
(4) Hazel *sits* gracefully.
(5) Mr. Johnson *has* an automobile.
(6) *Get* your lessons.
(7) We *hope* your brother *will get* well soon.
(8) The quinine *tastes* better.
(9) If he *tastes* it once, he *will* not *forget* it.
(10) If I *were* Charles, I *should go* to school.
(11) Whether he *wrote* the letter *does* not matter.
(12) The mountains now *are*, *have* always *been*, and *will* always *be*.
(13) If he *were* here, we *should be* happy.
(14) The work *is progressing*.
(15) The railroad *is building*.
(16) How *do* you *do*, Miss Hill?
(17) Hallowed *be* that spot.
(18) The bottle *was broken*.
(19) If he *be* alive, it *is* marvelous.
(20) The lady *is accomplished*.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

409. RULE XV. — *A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number.*

I *teach*. He *teaches*. They *teach*.

(*a*) A verb having two or more subjects connected by *and* must be plural: She and I *are* sisters.

(*b*) A verb following two or more singular subjects separated by *or* or *nor* must be singular: He or she *comes*. Either the blacksmith or the carpenter *was* here.

(*c*) A verb having two or more plural subjects connected by *or* or *nor* must be plural: They or we *were* right. The men or the children *are* wrong.

(*d*) A verb cannot have two or more subjects differing in number or in person and joined by *or* or *nor*. When two or more of such nominatives stand in a sentence before one verb, the verb agrees with the nominative nearest to it, and a verb is understood with each of the others: —

(1) *Put the plural subject next to the verb*, — Either the boy or the girls are here = Either the boy [is here] or the girls are here.

(2) When we use more than one person, the following order is the one commonly observed, — *second*, *third*, *first:* You, he, or I am to blame = You [are to blame], he [is to blame], or I am to blame.

(*e*) An appositive modifier of the subject expresses a subordinate idea, and does not affect the form of the verb: *I*, your brother, *request* it. Your *brother*, I, *requests* it.

(*f*) *A verb having for its subject a collective noun conveying the* **idea of unity**, *must be singular:* The class (not each individual) *was divided.*

(*g*) *A verb having for its subject a collective noun conveying the* **idea of plurality**, *must be plural:* The class *wear* blue and gold (each member does).

(*h*) The pronoun *you*, whether singular or plural, always takes a plural verb: You *are*. You *were*. You *have*.

(*i*) No word in a prepositional phrase modifying the subject has any influence over the verb: Your explanation of these words is (not are) good. Your questions concerning science are (not is) hard to answer.

(*j*) Be careful to use the right form of the verb when the sentence is introduced by such words as *hence* and *there*: Hence *arise* (not arises) several distinctions. There *were* (not was) some differences between them.

A WRITTEN REVIEW OF VERBS.

(1) Define a *verb*.

(2) How does the verb differ from all other parts of speech?

(3) State two reasons for giving most attention to the verb.

(4) What other parts of speech express *relation?* How does the verb differ from them?

(5) Illustrate a *verb*, and a *verb phrase*.

(6) What part does the *verb* play in the *predicate* of every sentence?

(7) Upon what *five bases* must a complete classification of verbs be made?

(8) Name the two classes on each basis.

(9) Define a *finite verb* and an *infinite verb*. Give illustrations.

(10) Write all the *infinitives* and all the *participles* of each of the verbs, *laugh* and *bring*.

(11) Define *transitive verb*, *intransitive verb*. Illustrate each in a sentence.

(12) Criticize (*a*) *A transitive verb is one that requires an object*, and (*b*) *An intransitive verb is one that does not require an object.*

(13) Give illustrations of (*a*) a verb commonly transitive may be intransitive, (*b*) a verb commonly intransitive may be transitive.

(14) Define *attributive verb*, *copulative verb*. Illustrate each in a sentence.

(15) Define *objective complement*, *attributive complement*. Illustrate in sentences.

(16) What may an *attributive complement* be? Illustrate.

(17) What can you say of the *predicate* in relation to the *copula* and *attribute?*

(18) When is the verb *to be* copulative? When attributive? Illustrate.

(19) Criticize this classification: *Verbs* are *transitive*, *intransitive*, or *copulative*.

(20) Name and illustrate three kinds of copulas.

(21) Give illustration of (*a*) a prepositional modifier of an attributive *to be*, and (*b*) the same prepositional phrase used as an attributive complement after the same verb *to be*.

(22) In such forms as, *The floor was painted*, how do you know whether you have an *intransitive copulative verb* followed by a predicate adjective, or a *transitive verb in the passive voice?* Give ten other illustrations of such ambiguous sentences.

(23) What is meant by the *principal parts* of verbs? Illustrate.

(24) Define a *regular verb*. An *irregular verb*. Illustrate each.

(25) Define a *complete*, a *redundant*, and a *defective verb*. Illustrate each.

(26) Define a *strong verb*, a *weak verb*. Illustrate. How do *weak* and *strong* verbs compare with *regular* and *irregular* verbs? Why are strong and weak verbs so called?

(27) Name ten irregular verbs that are difficult to use correctly. Give the principal parts of each. Use each form in a sentence.

(28) Define *auxiliary verb* and *principal verb*. Name the auxiliary verbs. Which of them may be used also as principal verbs?

(29) Give the rules for using *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*. Illustrate.

(30) Name the properties of verbs.

(31) Define *voice*, *active voice*, *passive voice*. Illustrate. Tell how to change an active verb to a passive. What kind of verbs can be in the passive voice?

(32) Criticize (*a*) *A verb is in the active voice when its subject acts*, and (*b*) *A verb is in the passive voice when its subject is acted upon.*

(33) What verbs do not have voice? What verbs have two voices? What verbs have only one voice?

(34) Name the elements of the passive voice.

(35) Define *mode*.

(36) What is meant by *reality?* What is a *thought?*

(37) Define the *indicative mode*. Illustrate.

(38) Define the *imperative mode*. Illustrate.

(39) Define the *subjunctive mode*. Illustrate.

(40) What are the two ideas of the subjunctive mode, (*a*) and (*b*)? Illustrate.

(41) What can you say about the subjunctive mode having a *special form* different from that of the indicative? Illustrate.

(42) What particular subjunctive form remains to-day? Illustrate.

(43) What words are commonly the *signs of the subjunctive mode?* When does the *indicative mode* follow one of these signs? Illustrate.

(44) Define *infinitive and participial modes.*

(45) Define *tense*. Name the *primary tenses*. Define each. Illustrate.

(46) Name the *secondary tenses*. Define each. Illustrate.

(47) What forms, *simple*, *progressive*, *emphatic*, belong to each tense?

(48) What tenses has the indicative mode? Illustrate in both voices.

(49) What tenses has the imperative mode? Illustrate in both voices.

(50) What tenses has the subjunctive mode? Illustrate in both voices.

(51) What tenses has the infinitive mode? Illustrate in both voices.

(52) What tenses has the participial mode? Illustrate in both voices.

(53) Define *person* and *number*. Illustrate each.

(54) Define *style*. Name and illustrate the styles of verbs.

(55) Define *Inflection*, *Conjugation*, *Principal Parts*.

(56) What is *parsing?* What are its *uses?* Its *abuses?*

(57) State the rule for the agreement of a verb with its subject. Write the six most important notes in explanation of the application of the rule. Illustrate each.

THE ADVERB.

410. In previous lessons we have seen that *objects have attributes*, which it is the business of certain parts of speech to express. The parts of speech that most commonly express attributes of objects are *verbs* and *adjectives*. Thus, in

Henry *walks*,

and

Mary is *industrious*,

walks expresses an attribute of *Henry*, and *industrious* expresses an attribute of *Mary*.

411. We have now to see that an *attribute may be thought of as having an attribute;* as in

Henry walks *rapidly*,

and

Mary is *very* industrious.

Here Henry has the *walking* attribute, and the walking itself has the attribute of *rapidity*. Mary has the attribute of *industriousness*, and this attribute in turn has that of *degree*, how much or how little, expressed by *very*. When the verb is not attributive but copulative, it expresses only a *connection*, and this *connection may be thought of as having an attribute;* as, —

She is *not* mistaken.

412. A word that expresses an attribute of an attribute or of a connection is an **adverb.**

413. *An* **Adverb** *is the part of speech that expresses an attribute of an attribute or of a connection;* or,

414. *An* **Adverb** *is a word that usually modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb.*

415. As the name *adverb* suggests, the chief use of this part of speech is to modify the verb; but it may modify: —

(1) **A verb**: She **writes** *correctly*.
(2) An **adjective**: He was *exceedingly* **poor**.
(3) An **adverb**: He talks *very* **well**.
(4) **A prepositional phrase**: Can it be done *only* **in your way**?

(*a*) Very often an adverb modifies a word not expressed; as, How does she sing? *Well.* Here *well* modifies *sings* not expressed.

(*b*) *Yes* and *no* are properly classed as adverbs, but they have no modifying use. Each is equivalent to an entire sentence. In, "Are you perfect?" I may answer, "I am not perfect"; or, which is the same thing, I may say, *No.* Often for emphasis both answers are given: *No, I am not perfect.*

416. Adverbs are classified both as to **meaning** and as to **use.**

CLASSES OF ADVERBS AS TO MEANING.

417. **As to meaning** or **idea** adverbs include those of *time, place, manner, degree, cause, purpose, or reason, doubt, affirmation,* and *negation.*

418. **Adverbs of time** *express the idea of time:* ever, never, then, when, often, again, recently, instantly, lately, etc.

419. **Adverbs of place** *express the idea of place:* here, there, everywhere, somewhere, nowhere, up, down, without, within, etc.

420. **Adverbs of manner** *express the idea of manner:* well, ill, how, somehow, happily, silently, clearly, merely, justly, distressingly, creditably, etc.

421. **Adverbs of degree** *express the idea of degree:* much, more, less, least, exclusively, sufficiently, enough, etc.

422. **Adverbs of cause, purpose,** or **reason** *express the corresponding idea:* why, wherefore, therefore, consequently, hereby, thereby, etc.

423. **Adverbs of doubt** *express the idea of uncertainty or of certainty:* perhaps, probably, possibly, doubtfully, doubtless, certainly, assuredly, etc.

424. Adverbs of affirmation or **negation** *express the corresponding idea:* yes, no, not, aye, nay, etc.

(*a*) **Modal Adverbs** *denote the manner of the thinking rather than the manner of the action.* Thus in, "He came *rapidly*," *rapidly* expresses the manner of his coming and is an *adverb of manner;* but in "*Certainly*, he came," *certainly* expresses the mode or form of my thought and is a *modal adverb.*

(*b*) **An interrogative adverb** *is one that asks a question*, and **a responsive adverb** *is one that answers a question: How* does he write? He writes *well.*

(*c*) **An adverbial phrase** *is a combination of words expressing a single adverbial idea:* day and night, by and by, out and out, through and through, etc.

(*d*) **An introductory adverb** *is one without modifying force, used to introduce a sentence;* as, —

There were many men present.
Well, how do you like him?

CLASSES OF ADVERBS AS TO USE.

425. Except *yes* and *no*, and a few introductory words, *all adverbs have a modifying use.* If this is their only use, they are called **simple adverbs.**

426. *A* **Simple Adverb** *is one having only a modifying use or one used independently.*

Where does he live! He lives *here.*
He works *rapidly.* She left us *recently.*

427. But some adverbs, in addition to their modifying use, have also *a connective use.* They are **conjunctive adverbs.** In the sentence,

The book lies *where* you left it,

the word *where* modifies the verb *left*, and joins the subordinate clause, *where you left it*, to the verb *lies.* It must be noted that a conjunctive adverb always occurs in a subordinate clause and modifies some word in this clause. The subordinate clause itself modifies some part of the

principal sentence and is joined to this part by the conjunctive adverb.

428. *A* **Conjunctive Adverb** *is one that modifies some word in a subordinate clause and joins this subordinate clause to some part of a principal sentence:* —

You may come *when* you have time.
I shall remain *where* I am.
Let us work *while* we have opportunity.

SUBCLASSES OF SIMPLE ADVERBS.

429. All simple adverbs are either **responsive** or **interrogative,**

When may I go? You may go *now.*

430. We see also that an interrogative adverb may *directly ask a question* or *indirectly imply* a question. We have, therefore, the two classes, — **direct interrogative adverbs**, and **indirect interrogative adverbs**: —

Where are you? We know *where* you are.
When will he buy it? I asked *when* he bought it.
How can he leave his work? You can guess *how* he leaves it.

431. In the three sentences to the left, *where*, *when*, and *how* ask direct questions and are called **direct interrogative adverbs**; in the three to the right, they indirectly imply questions, and are called **indirect interrogative adverbs.**

(*a*) **The direct interrogative adverb** may be used in either a **principal** or a **subordinate sentence**; as, —

Where am I? *Where* does he say I am?

(*b*) **The indirect interrogative adverb** is always used in a **subordinate** sentence.

(*c*) **The clause** containing an indirect interrogative adverb is always **substantive.** It may be: —

(1) **Subject of a finite verb**: *When he came* is the question.

(2) **Complement of a finite copula**: The question is, *when did he come?*

(3) **In apposition**: The question, *When did he come?* has been answered.

(4) **Object of a transitive verb**: We know *when he came.*

(5) **Object of a preposition**: We asked about *when he came.*

(6) **Subject of an infinitive**: We believe *when he came* to be an important question.

(7) **Complement of an infinitive copula**: We understand the question to be *when he came.*

(*d*) **Indirect interrogative adverbs** *are never connectives. No interrogative word, direct or indirect, is ever a connective. A substantive clause needs no connective.*

SUBCLASSES OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

432. Ordinary conjunctive adverbs *join an adverbial clause to a verb, adjective* or *adverb;* as, —

You **may come** *when* we call you.
He is **happy** *as* a king.
We are **as** tired *as* he.
These we may call **Ordinary Conjunctive adverbs.**

433. Sometimes a conjunctive adverb *joins an adjective clause to a substantive;* as, —

The **time** *when* the deed was done is not known.
This is the **place** *where* you stumbled.

434. Such words have the same connective force as relative pronouns; they may, therefore, be called **Relative Conjunctive Adverbs.**

(*a*) **The ordinary conjunctive adverb** is equivalent to two prepositional phrases. Thus,

It remains **where** we placed it =
It remains **in the place in which** we placed it.

(*b*) **A relative conjunctive adverb** is equivalent to but one phrase. Thus,

He remembers the time **when** I told him =
He remembers the time **at which** I told him.

(*c*) **Remember**: *the conjunctive adverb*, whether the ordinary or the relative, *modifies some part of a subordinate clause, and the subordinate clause itself modifies some part of the principal sentence.* Thus in,

You may go *when* the clock strikes,

the conjunctive adverb **when** modifies the verb *strikes*, and the subordinate clause, **when the clock strikes**, modifies the verb *may go.*

435. *Distinguish the uses of* **where** *in:* —

(1) *Where* is Helen? — **Direct Interrogative Adverb.**
(2) I know *where* Helen is. — **Indirect Interrogative Adverb.**
(3) I work *where* Helen is. — **Ordinary Conjunctive Adverb.**
(4) I like the place *where* Helen is. — **Relative Conjunctive Adverb.**

436. *Remember:* —

(1) The **direct interrogative adverb** directly asks a question and may be in either a principal sentence or a subordinate clause. Illustrate.

(2) The **indirect interrogative adverb** only implies a question and occurs only in a substantive clause. Illustrate.

(3) The **ordinary conjunctive adverb** always modifies some word in an adverbial clause, and joins this subordinate clause to some part of the principal sentence. Illustrate.

(4) The **relative conjunctive adverb** always modifies some word in an adjective clause, and joins this adjective clause to a substantive in the principal sentence. Illustrate.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

437. **Adverbs**, like adjectives, **have one property**, — **comparison**; as, *loud*, *louder*, *loudest; well*, *better*, *best; recently*, *more recently*, *most recently*.

438. The **kinds**, **methods**, and **degrees** of comparison are the same as for the adjective.

(*a*) The rule for the comparative and superlative of adjectives applies also to adverbs.

PARSING OF ADVERBS.

(1) Part of Speech.
(2) Classes and subclasses.
(3) Comparison.
(4) Degree.
(5) Construction.
(6) Rule.

Walk *rapidly while* the sun shines.
It is the time *when* flowers bloom.

439. **Rapidly**, adverb, of manner, — rapidly, more rapidly, most rapidly, — positive degree and modifies *walk*, Rule XI.

440. While, adverb, ordinary conjunctive, of time; it modifies *shines* and joins the clause, *while the sun shines*, to the verb *walk*, Rule XI.

441. When, adverb, relative conjunctive, of time; it modifies the verb *bloom*, and joins the clause, *when flowers bloom*, to the noun *time*, Rule XI.

EXERCISES FOR WRITTEN PARSING.

(1) She speaks *softly*.
(2) He comes *occasionally*.
(3) The child looks *lovely*.
(4) Shall we expect them *to-day? No*.
(5) *Perhaps* I shall do it.
(6) *When* will they plant the corn? *To-morrow*.
(7) I know *when* farmers plant corn.
(8) The time *when* corn is planted is spring.
(9) You must have hope *when* you plant corn.
(10) *How* does he work?
(11) *How well* does he work?
(12) *How* is Marjorie? *Well*.
(13) Whether he does the work *well* or *ill* I like him.
(14) Whether he is *well* or *ill* we must not mistreat him.
(15) Can you see *where* he sits?
(16) Did you learn *when* he came?
(17) Can you guess *when* I disturb you?
(18) I know *when* I am on my feet.

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

442. RULE XI.—*Adverbs usually modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.*

(*a*) As already pointed out, an adverb is sometimes used independently and has no modifying force.

(*b*) Sometimes an adverb modifies a prepositional phrase; as, Must you speak *only* **of my mistakes?**

(*c*) A double negative should nearly always be avoided; it has the force of an affirmative and in most cases is inelegant; as, —

I shall *not* speak to you *no* more.
She has *not* had *no* dinner.

In some cases, however, two negative particles are forcible and elegant; as, She is *not* as *un*harmonious as we thought.

(*d*) After an intransitive verb we use an **adverb** when we wish to express the *manner of the action*, and an **adjective** when we refer to the *condition of an agent* ; as, —

He looks *strangely*. He looks *strange*.

(*e*) By a kind of poetic license an adjective is sometimes used instead of an adverb ; as, The swallow sings *sweet* from her nest on the wall.

443. All liabilities to error in the use of adverbs may be included under three heads, — **choice, form, position.**

(*a*) When in doubt as to the fitness of a word, consult a large dictionary or a good book on synonyms.

A WRITTEN REVIEW OF ADVERBS.

(1) Give what explanation you think necessary to lead up to a proper definition of an *adverb*. Give the definition.

(2) What may an adverb modify ? Illustrate.

(3) What are the two bases upon which adverbs should be classified ? What are the classes ? Illustrate.

(4) Name and illustrate six classes of ideas that adverbs may express.

(5) Explain clearly and illustrate the *modal adverb*.

(6) What is an *adverbial phrase ?* Illustrate.

(7) What are *introductory adverbs ?* Illustrate.

(8) What are the two classes of adverbs on the basis of *use ?*

(9) Define and illustrate a *simple adverb*.

(10) Define and illustrate a *conjunctive adverb*.

(11) What are the two subclasses of simple adverbs ?

(12) Define and illustrate *responsive* and *interrogative adverbs*.

(13) Name the two classes of interrogative adverbs. Illustrate each.

(14) In what kind of sentence may a direct interrogative adverb be used ? Illustrate.

(15) In what kind of sentence does the indirect interrogative adverb always occur ?

(16) In what *constructions* may the *clause* containing an indirect interrogative adverb be used ? Illustrate.

(17) Tell what you know about the *connective* for a *substantive clause*.

(18) What are the two subclasses of conjunctive adverbs ?

(19) Define and illustrate the *ordinary conjunctive adverb*.

(20) Define and illustrate the *relative conjunctive adverb*.

(21) Each is equivalent to what *phrases ?* Illustrate.

(22) What is the *modifying force* of every conjunctive adverb? What is the *modifying force* of the *clause* containing a conjunctive adverb? Make this clear by illustrations and explanations.

(23) For the purpose of distinguishing them make an important statement about (*a*) the *direct interrogative adverb*, (*b*) the *indirect interrogative adverb*, (*c*) the ordinary conjunctive adverb, (*d*) the relative conjunctive adverb. Illustrate each statement.

(24) Write four good statements concerning the only property that adverbs have. Illustrate each.

(25) Write three statements concerning the *use of adverbs*. Illustrate each.

(26) Name four adverbs difficult to use correctly. Tell how each should be used. Illustrate.

THE PREPOSITION.

444. We have seen that the verb may *express relation*, that it *may affirm this relation*, and *may govern the case of substantives*. In the sentences : —

He *came* **with** the *boys*, He *came* **with** *us*,
She *sat* **by** her *sisters*, She *sat* **by** *them*,

we have another part of speech, represented by the words in black type, which, like the verb, *expresses relation* and *governs substantives*, but, unlike the verb, *cannot affirm the relation*. In each of the sentences given above the two italicized words express ideas that are related, and the little word in black type *expresses the relation* and *governs the case of the following substantive*. All such words are **prepositions.**

445. *A* **Preposition** *is the part of speech that expresses relation without asserting or assuming it and governs a substantive called its object.*

CLASSES OF PREPOSITIONS.

446. According to their form, prepositions are classified into : —

(1) **Simple**, — *Simple prepositions ;* as, *for*, *by*, *on*, *at*, *in*, etc.

(2) **Compound**, — *Consisting of two or more prepositions ;* as, *from above*, *from under*, etc.

(3) **Complex**, — *Any combination of different parts of speech used as a single preposition ;* as, *to the distance of*, *to the extent of*, etc.

TERMS OF RELATION.

447. Prepositions are relation words, and relation implies two objects. There are, therefore, always **two terms of the relation** expressed by a preposition. These two

terms are **object** and **antecedent**. *The* **object** *is the substantive governed by the preposition. The* **antecedent** *is the term to which the preposition joins the substantive.*

448. *The* **object** *of a preposition is always a substantive.* It may be,

(1) A **noun**: We stood on the *bridge.*

(2) A **pronoun**: He came with *us.*

(3) An **adverb**: In such expressions as, since *then*, before *then*, till *now*, to *here*, for *ever*, between *then* and *now.* (See Whitney's Grammar, p. 144.)

(4) An **adjective**: On *high*, of *old*, in *vain*, for *good.*

(5) An **infinitive**: He did nothing except *to criticize* us.

(6) A **participle**: He is interested in *learning* engineering.

(7) A **clause**: She inquired as to *who brought the flowers.*

(*a*) A **phrase** sometimes seems to be the object of a preposition in such sentences as, "He has lived there since before the war," but it is better to regard *since before*, *from above*, *from under*, and like combinations, as *compound prepositions* governing the following substantives.

(*b*) In all such sentences as, —

We started *before* the sun set,
She came *after* he left,
He has been here *since* the mill exploded,
He will remain *till* morning dawns,
He will not leave *until* Christmas comes,
He may die *ere* the day dawns,

the words *before*, *after*, *since*, *till*, *until*, and *ere* are *prepositions* governing the following clauses. Each clause may be abridged into a *substantive* that is clearly the object of the preceding preposition, leaving the meaning and the relations unchanged; as, —

We started *before* the sun set. We started *before* sunset.

449. *The* **antecedent** *of a preposition is the word the phrase limits.* It may be,

(1) A **verb**: He *stands* by the post.

(2) A **noun**: It is a *community* of honest men.

(3) A **pronoun**: *You* of the southland are our brothers.

(4) An **adjective**: The ground was *white* with snow.

(5) An **adverb**: You have worked *sufficiently* for to-day.

(6) An **interjection**: *Alas* for maiden, alas for judge.

450. The prepositions most commonly used are: About, above, according to, across, after, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, as to, at, before; behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond, but, by, concerning, down, during, except, for, from, in, into, notwithstanding, of, on, out of, round, save, since, till, through, throughout, to, toward, towards, until, under, up, with, within, without.

(*a*) *Of* is said to be used nearly as often as all other prepositions combined.

PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS.

451. To parse a preposition is to state the part of speech to which it belongs, and name the object and antecedent between which it shows relation.

452. It is generally very easy to determine the *object* of a preposition, and often difficult to find the antecedent; but the correct answers to two questions will always reveal both. (1) Put the interrogative pronoun *what* after the preposition to find the object; then (2) put the interrogative pronoun *what* before the phrase to find the *antecedent*. Thus, "We came *through* the woods." (1) Through *what?* Through the *woods*. (2) *What* through the woods? *Came* through the woods.

(1) Part of speech. (2) Relation. (3) Rule.

He brought the money *with* him.

453. **With**, preposition, and shows the relation between *him* and *brought*, RULE XIII.

(1) Come *to* the store and go *with* us.
(2) Lay your hat *on* the chair *by* the post.
(3) The squirrel jumped *from* the roof *to* the tree.
(4) The horse ran *from* the door *of* the barn *to* the tree *by* the well.
(5) I shall leave *before* you come.
(6) They remained *under* shelter *of* the tree *till* I unlocked the door.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS.

454. RULE XIII. — *A preposition shows the relation of its object to the word which the phrase modifies.*

(*a*) When the object of a preposition is omitted, it usually becomes an *adverb*, but sometimes an *adjective:* It flew *up*, *around*, and *down* again. It overlooks the plain *below*.

(*b*) *One preposition* may have *several antecedents:* They *wash*, *iron*, *cook*, *eat*, and *sleep* **in** the same room.

(*c*) *One antecedent* may have *several prepositions:* A **government** *of* the people, *by* the people, and *for* the people.

(*d*) *One preposition* may have *several objects:* A law **against** *fraud*, *falsehood*, and *violence*.

(*e*) *One object* may have *several prepositions:* She walked *up*, *down*, and *across* the **hall**.

455. **In the use of prepositions** *all errors may be included under* **Choice, Position, Insertion,** or **Omission,** and **Repetition.**

456. In all these cases make frequent use of a large dictionary and observe how prepositions are used by the best writers.

A WRITTEN REVIEW OF PREPOSITIONS

(1) Define a *preposition.* How are *prepositions like verbs?* How are they *different?*

(2) Name the *classes of prepositions.* Define and illustrate each.

(3) Name the two *terms of relation.* Define and illustrate each.

(4) What may the *object of a preposition* be? Illustrate.

(5) What may the antecedent of a preposition be? Illustrate.

(6) Illustrate: (*a*) *One preposition* may have *several antecedents.* (*b*) *One antecedent* may have *several prepositions.* (*c*) *One preposition* may have *several objects.* (*d*) *One object* may have *several prepositions.*

THE CONJUNCTION.

457. In a preceding lesson we saw that a **verb** may *express relation*, may *assert or assume* the relation it expresses, and may *govern an object*. We saw also that a **preposition** may *express relation*, and may *govern an object*, but may *not assert or assume the relation*. Now in each of the sentences, —

(1) *Men* **and** *women* should work,
(2) We have respect *for the law* **and** *for the courts*,
(3) It is pleasant *to go* **and** *to return*,
(4) *The rain descended* **and** *the floods came*,
(5) *His promise is strong*, **but** *his performance is weak*,
(6) They *listened* **because** *they wished to hear*, —

the italicized parts express ideas that are related, and the word in black type expresses this relation and joins the two parts. Such are **conjunctions**. It will readily be seen that *conjunctions express relation*, but *cannot assert or assume the relation* or *govern objects*.

458. *A* **conjunction** *is the part of speech whose only office is to express relation.* Or, *a* **conjunction** *is the part of speech whose only office is to connect sentences or parts of sentences.*

459. In the first five sentences above, the conjunctions connect coördinate parts; in the last sentence, the part on the right explains, or is subordinate to, the part on the left.

(*a*) *The* **Conjunction** *is not the only connective.* **Relative pronouns** and **conjunctive adverbs** are connectives, but they have also a modifying use, while the conjunction has not.

(*b*) *The* **conjunction**, *like the preposition*, is a **relation word**, because it always indicates the relation that the parts connected bear to each other.

(*c*) *The* **verb** *also is a relation word*, and *it is always a connective.* But the verb, unlike both the preposition and the conjunction, not only *expresses* the relation, but *asserts* it if it is a finite verb, or *assumes* it if it is an infinitive or a participle.

(*d*) *The* **conjunction is like the preposition and unlike the verb** in being unable to *assert* or *assume* the relation; and is **unlike both prepositions and verbs** *in having no governing power over substantives.*

(*e*) From all these notes taken together, the **definition of a conjunction** clearly appears, — *that part of speech whose only office is to express relation.*

PARTS CONNECTED.

460. A conjunction may join: —

(1) **Two independent sentences**: *Young heads are giddy* **and** *young hearts are warm.*

(2) **Two dependent sentences**: The boy waited because *he was tired* **and** *his mother wished to speak to him.*

(3) **Two words**: *Susan* **and** *Martha* are *instructive* **and** *interesting.*

(4) **Two phrases**: The boy walked *into the room* **and** *beyond the desk.* He is able *to answer many questions* **and** *to ask more.*

(5) **A subordinate sentence** and **a part of a principal sentence**: I *shall do* the work **if** *he requests it.*

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

461. Conjunctions must be classified upon two different bases, — **use** and **meaning.**

462. **As to use,** conjunctions are either **coördinate** or **subordinate.**

463. *A* **Coördinate Conjunction** *is one that joins elements having the same grammatical construction.*

464. *A* **Subordinate Conjunction** *is one that joins a subordinate clause to some part of a principal sentence.*

(*a*) *The one thing of importance here is to be able to determine in every instance whether the conjunction is coördinate or subordinate.*

(*b*) *A* **coördinate conjunction** may join *two words, two phrases,* or *two sentences;* as,

We like *Gladys* **and** *Flora.*
They came *from New York* **and** *from Chicago.*
He has learned *to write well* **and** *to read fluently.*
Grace sings **and** *Helen plays.*

(*c*) *A* **subordinate conjunction** always joins a *subordinate clause* to *a part* of a principal sentence ; as,

He *took* my book **because** *I requested it.*
She *refused* to walk farther, **for** *she was out of breath.*
Wallace was *so* eager to assist **that** *we allowed him to do it.*

465. As to meaning, conjunctions are : —

Copulative, *denoting addition ;* as,

I gave it to you **and** you are welcome to it.

466. Adversative, or **Disjunctive,** *denoting opposition ;* as,

I gave it to him, **but** he does not appreciate it.

467. Correlative, *those used in pairs : both — and, either — or, neither — nor ;*

Both the boy **and** his sister applied for work.

468. Alternative : *denoting one or the other of two ;* as,

Margaret **or** Robert will be chosen.

469. Causal : *one introducing a causal clause ;* as, *because, since, for* : —

I like him **because** he is kind.

470. Conditional : *one introducing a conditional clause ;* as,

He will work **if** you pay him.

(*a*) **And, that,** and **for** are often used merely as introductory words having no connecting power ; as,

And it came to pass.
We hope **that** you are succeeding.
For what shall it profit a man ?

(*b*) It is only to conform to well established custom that *either — or, neither — nor, both — and,* are called conjunctions. Each pair includes two *correlative words,* the first of which is *introductory,* and the second *connective.*

(*c*) In studying the conjunction, remember that the two all-important things are : —

(1) *What does it connect ?*
(2) *Is it coördinate or subordinate ?*

PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS.

(1) Part of Speech. (3) Subclass. (5) Rule.
(2) Class. (4) Construction.

(1) Wealth *and* culture are powerful motives.
(2) He declines from principle *and* from pride.
(3) She works *but* he rests.
(4) I should not want the place *either* for profit *or* for pleasure.
(5) We can lift it *if* you assist us.

471. (1) **And**, conj., coör., cop.; it connects the two nouns, *wealth* and *culture*, R. XII.

472. (2) **And**, conj., coör., cop.; it connects the two phrases, *from principle* and *from pride*, R. XII.

473. (3) **But**, conj., coör., disj.; it connects the two independent sentences, *she works* and *he rests*, R. XII.

474. (4) **Either — or**, correlative words, — **either** is an introductory expletive introducing, and **or** is a coördinate alternative conjunction connecting, the two phrases, *for profit* and *for pleasure*, R. XII.

475. (5) **If**, conj., subor., conditional; it joins the subordinate sentence, *you assist us*, to the verb, *can lift*, R. XII.

EXERCISES FOR WRITTEN PARSING.

(1) Town *and* country are both desirable.
(2) To talk about a deed *and* to do it are not the same.
(3) With much effort *and* with great patience it can be done.
(4) Art is long, *but* time is fleeting.
(5) *While* Aristotle was more of a scientist, Plato was the profounder thinker.
(6) We profit by *both* his precept *and* his example.
(7) Not failure *but* low aim is crime.
(8) *And* now go ahead.
(9) He was a great man *although* his father was a failure.
(10) He listened *that* he might understand.
(11) *If* your own record is clear, you may criticize us.
(12) *Since* you have not tried to help yourself, we shall not try to help you.

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

476. RULE XII. — *Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences.*

477. A **coördinate conjunction** may connect:—

(1) **Two independent sentences**: *Tasks are long* **and** *life is short.*

(2) **Two dependent sentences** : You will secure the position if *you apply for it* **and** *he recommends you.*

(3) **Two prepositional phrases** : *Down the hill* **and** *into the river* he ran.

(4) **Two infinitive phrases**: He thinks he is able *to write a letter* **and** *to talk to me* at the same time.

(5) **Two participial phrases** : He stood *looking into the fire* **and** *humming his favorite tune.*

(6) **Two nouns or pronouns** : *Boys* **and** *men* came with *him* **and** *me.*

(7) **Two verbs**, with or without modifiers : He *built the house* **and** *lived in it.* Cæsar *came* **and** *conquered.*

(8) **Two adjectives** : The child is *hungry* **and** *cold.*

(9) **Two adverbs** : Speak *slowly* **and** *distinctly.*

478. A **subordinate conjunction** always joins a *subordinate clause* to *some part* of a principal sentence. It may join its subordinate clause to, —

(1) A **verb**: He *failed* **because** *he did not work.*

(2) An **adjective**: His record was *better* **than** *it had ever been before.*

(3) An **adverb** : He works *better* **than** *he has ever* worked before.

(*a*) **Though** and **although** are commonly classed as subordinate conjunctions joining subordinate clauses to the parts modified. But they seem quite as much like disjunctive coördinate conjunctions joining two coördinate sentences. Thus, " He fails **although** he tries " is not much different from

He tries **but** he fails.

(*b*) **While** is often used as a coördinate disjunctive conjunction having about the same force as **but** ; as,

He was worthless, **while** his father was a great man.

This use of *while* must be carefully distinguished from its use as a *conjunctive adverb of time*, as in, You may *load* the hay **while** *I drive.*

(*c*) **That** is never a connective when it introduces a *substantive clause;* as,

I believe *that* he is an astronomer.

We never need a connective for a substantive clause.

(*d*) When **than** joins a subordinate sentence to two adjectives or adverbs, both must be in the same degree; as, He is *taller* and *heavier* **than** *I am*.

(*e*) **Or** has two uses:—

(1) *To connect two alternatives;* as, You may choose a lady *or* gentleman.

(2) *To precede an explanatory term;* as: The President, *or* chief ruler of the United States, is the most powerful potentate in the world.

(*f*) When we have a series of parts in the same construction, the connective is expressed only before the last; as, You should employ Brown, Smith, Jones, and Johnson.

(*g*) **And** may give to the parts connected, —

(1) *A collective signification;* as, Paul *and* Peter (together) weigh three hundred pounds; or,

(2) *A distributive signification;* as, Paul *and* Peter (separately) weigh coal.

A WRITTEN REVIEW OF CONJUNCTIONS.

(1) How are conjunctions like prepositions? How unlike?

(2) How are conjunctions like verbs? How unlike?

(3) Define a conjunction.

(4) What other parts of speech are connectives?

(5) Name the classes of conjunctions as to use. Define each. Illustrate.

(6) Name the classes of conjunctions as to meaning. Define each. Illustrate.

(7) State what parts may be connected by a coördinate conjunction. Illustrate.

(8) State what parts may be connected by a subordinate conjunction. Illustrate.

(9) What do you consider the two most important points to note in the study of conjunctions?

THE INTERJECTION.

479. *An interjection is an exclamatory word used to express an isolated feeling that comes in between thoughts or ideas.*

(*a*) The word *interjection* means *thrown between.* That is, the emotion is thrown in between thoughts or ideas, and the word that expresses it is thrown in between sentences or parts of sentences.

(*b*) Interjections have no classes and no properties.

480. RULE XVII. — *An interjection has no grammatical dependence on any part of the sentence.*

481. List: alas, alack, heigh, ha, bravo, oh, O, fie, ah, ho, are in common use.

482. A caution: *Do not use interjections in the absence of corresponding emotions. Do not allow the course of thought to be too frequently interrupted by emotions.*

RULES OF SYNTAX.

SUBJECTS.

I. **The subject of a finite verb** is in the nominative case.

II. **The subject of an infinitive** is in the objective case when it does not depend upon any other word.

III. **The subject of a participle,** when it does not depend upon any other word, is in the possessive case or nominative absolute: possessive when the participle is used as a noun in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle with its subject is used independently.

OBJECTS.

IV. **The object of a verb** is in the objective case.

V. **The object of a preposition** is in the objective case.

IDENTIFICATION.

VI. A noun or pronoun used as **the complement of a copulative verb** is in the same case as its subject. *Exception.* — When the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, the complement is nominative.

VII. **A noun or pronoun in apposition** is in the same case as the noun or pronoun it explains.

POSSESSIVE CASE.

VIII. **A noun or pronoun limiting another noun signifying a different thing** is in the possessive case.

ABSOLUTE CASE.

IX. **A noun or pronoun used independently** is in the nominative absolute case.

MODIFIERS.

X. **Adjectives** limit substantives.

XI. **Adverbs** (usually) limit verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

CONNECTIVE OR RELATION WORDS.

XII. **Conjunctions** connect words, phrases, and sentences.

XIII. **A preposition** shows the relation of its object to the word the phrase limits.

AGREEMENT.

XIV. **A pronoun** agrees with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

XV. **A finite verb** agrees with its subject in person and number.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

XVI. **Infinitives and participles**, in addition to their verbal uses, are used also as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

INTERJECTIONS.

XVII. **An interjection** does not depend for grammatical construction upon any other word.

EXPLETIVES.

XVIII. *The words* **and, that, there, for,** and some others are often used merely as introductory expletives.

INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

483. **Infinitives and Participles** *are forms of the verb.* Thus, from the verb *go*, we have two infinitives, *to go* and *to have gone*, and two participles, *going* and *having gone*. The same is true of any other intransitive verb ; it gives us two infinitives and two participles, the present, *to go* and *going*, and the present perfect, *to have gone* and *having gone*. Designate the two infinitives and the two participles of each of the intransitive verbs, *fall*, *walk*, *wait*, *sit*, *lie*, *rise*.

484. Every transitive verb has four infinitive forms and four participial forms, or, we may say, four infinitives and four participles, the present and the present perfect of each in the active voice, and the present and the present perfect of each in the passive voice. Thus from the transitive verb, *buy*, we have the active infinitives and participles, *to buy*, *to have bought*, *buying*, *having bought*, and the passive infinitives and participles, *to be bought*, *to have been bought*, *being bought*, and *having been bought*. Write the corresponding forms of each of the transitive verbs, *sell*, *see*, *take*, *sing*, *set*, *raise*. Tell whether each form is infinitive or participle, present or present perfect, active or passive.

485. The word **infinitive** means unlimited. As applied to verbs it means that their infinitive forms (infinitives and participles) are unlimited by person and number. That is, an infinitive or a participle retains the same form regardless of the person and number of its subject. Thus, a finite verb may change its form as we change the person or number of its subject: I *am*, Thou *art*, He *is*, They *are*. But an infinitive or a participle never

undergoes a change of form on account of a change in the person or number of its subject: He wishes me *to be*, I wish thee *to be*, You wish him *to be*, We wish them *to be;* I *being* honest, Thou *being* honest, He *being* honest, They *being* honest. Thus, infinitives and participles are unlimited in form by the person or number of their subjects.

486. Different Views. — Grammarians do not all give the same disposition of infinitives and participles, and it is easy for the beginner to be confused by their different classifications and different terminology. It will be easy for the high school student, however, to see that they all mean the same thing. For him the thing of importance is to understand the subject; then he, as well as the rest of us, will be entitled to an opinion as to which is the most reasonable classification and the most useful terminology. Thus, some grammarians whose scholarship must be conceded class infinitives and participles as nouns and adjectives, and then say that incidentally they have some of the uses of verbs. The author of this book prefers to class them as verbs and then say that incidentally they have some of the uses of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. After a tolerably complete study, the class, with the teacher, should make a list of all the uses of infinitives and participles, designating which are noun, adjective, or adverbial, and which are verb uses.

487. Again, an attempt has been made to import into English grammar the foreign terminology, *gerund* for participles having a substantive use and *gerundive* for participles having an adjective use; but fortunately it has not been successful. It is simpler and also more intelligible, in such sentences as, He objects to *buying* the corn, and The man *buying* the corn is Henry, to say that in the first, *buying* is a participial form of the verb, or a participle, having also the construction (use) of a noun, object

of the preposition *to;* and in the second, *buying* is the participial form of the verb, or a participle, having also the construction (use) of an adjective limiting the noun *man.*

488. For the same reason it is confusing and in no way helpful to speak of a participle having a substantive use as "an infinitive in *-ing.*" It is now well settled in English that certain verb forms are called infinitives, and certain other verb forms, participles. As said above, each transitive verb has four infinitives and four participles. For example, the verb *sing* gives us :—

489.

	Infinitives and	Participles
Present active.	to sing	singing
Present perfect active.	to have sung	having sung
Present passive.	to be sung	being sung
Present perfect passive.	to have been sung	having been sung

490. Finite Verbs do not always assert.— A finite verb may assert, but it does not always do so. In interrogative and imperative sentences it does not assert; as, *Am* I mistaken? *Come* to see us. Nor can finite verbs be properly said to assert in subordinate sentences; as, I shall see you when you *come*, You believe he *is* honest, The boy that *is* studious learns, etc. The italicized verbs only assume, they do not assert. Now, infinitives and participles never assert, they always assume. This distinction, together with the one given in section 485, where it is pointed out that infinitives and participles are not modified by the person or number of their subjects, make possible the following statements: *A finite verb is any verb form which is personal and which in a declarative sentence asserts. Infinitives and participles are impersonal verbs that never assert but only assume.*

491. Infinitives and **Participles resemble finite verbs** in all respects essential to the nature of verbs. They fall into the same classes, and they have the same properties.

492. Transitive and Intransitive are terms used exclusively to denote classes of verbs. In the sentences,

We wish *to go* home,

and

The boy *going* home is Henry,

the infinitive and the participle are intransitive. In the following sentences all the infinitives and participles are transitive : —

We wish *to buy* corn.
The man *driving* the horses is Henry.
We expect the corn *to be bought* by him.
The horses *being driven* by Henry are ours.
We believe Henry *to have driven* the horses many times.
Henry, *having driven* the horses, wished *to buy* them.
The horses *to have been driven* by Henry were driven by George.
The horses *having been driven* by Henry were bought by George.

An examination of these sentences will show us also that, like other verbs, infinitives and participles, when active and transitive, may govern objects.

493. Attributive and **Copulative** are other classes including both finite verbs and infinitives and participles. The infinitives and participles in the first two of the following sentences are attributive; those in the last two are copulative : —

We expect him *to farm.*
The man *lending* the money is Thomas.
We expect him *to be* a farmer.
The man *being* a lender of money was popular.

Copulative infinitives and participles may be completed by either nouns or adjectives or other expressions so used. Give illustrations.

494. Regular and Irregular. — Every regular verb, like *plow*, has its infinitive and participial forms, *to plow*, *to be plowed*, *plowing*, *being plowed;* also, every irregular verb, like *see*, has its infinitives and participles, *to see*, *to have seen*, *seeing*, *having seen.*

495. May express Action, Being, or State, as *to run, running; to be, being; to stand, standing.*

496. May be modified by Adverbial and Objective Elements, as in, Boys like to save their *money when they have earned it;* The man driving four *horses with one hand* is Charles.

497. Infinitives and Participles have the Properties of Verbs: voice, mode, and tense. This is another good test of their proper classification. Verbs are the only part of speech to which these properties are ever attributed.

498. Voice. —

Active. We wish John *to drive* the horse.
The boy *driving* the horse is John.

Passive. We wish the horse *to be driven* by John.
The horse *being driven* by John is Dick.

499. Mode. — The mode of infinitives and participles, their manner of expression, is that of *assuming*, not of *asserting*. Their mode is always clearly shown by their form: —

We wish him *to go*. The boy *going* with us is George.

500. Tense. — Like finite verbs, infinitives and participles are able to mark difference in time. They have two tenses, present and present perfect: —

I believe the boy *to be* honest.
The boy *bringing* the bucket is Paul.
I believe the boy *to have been* honest.
Paul, *having brought* the bucket, went after the cows.

Tense is so exclusively a property of verbs that some grammarians regard it as their distinguishing characteristic. Thus, in the German language, the verb is called the *Zeit Wort* or time word.

501. Time Expressed by the Tenses. — In a general way *tense* means *time*, but, as already pointed out, it cannot be said that a certain tense always denotes a corresponding time. We have already noted that infinitives and par-

ticiples have two tenses, present and present perfect. What is the time expressed by each ?

(1) In the first place, the time expressed by the infinitive and the participle often has no reference whatever to that of the finite verb in the same sentence. This may be seen from the following : —

The horse *to be sold was* valuable.
The horse *to be sold is* valuable.
The horse *to be sold will be* valuable.
The man *selling* the popcorn *was* a millionaire.
The man *selling* the popcorn *is* a millionaire.
The man *selling* the popcorn *will be* a millionaire.

(2) In the next place, when the time of the infinitive and participle does depend upon that of the finite verb, the following rules hold without exception: —

502. First. — *The time of the present infinitive and present participle is present or future with reference to that of the finite verb in the same sentence.*

503. Second. — *The time of the perfect infinitive and perfect participle is previous to that of the finite verb in the same sentence.*

504. These sentences illustrate the first rule : —

He *came* (past) to the front *to hear* (later).
He *comes* (present) to the front *to hear* (later).
He *will come* (future) to the front *to hear* (later).
He *came* (past) *stumbling* (same time).
He *comes* (present) *stumbling* (same time).
He *will come* (future) *stumbling* (same time).

505. Illustrations of the second rule are given in the following sentences : —

He *believed* (past) me *to have been mistaken* (previously).
He *believes* (present) me *to have been mistaken* (previously).
He *will believe* (future) me *to have been mistaken* (previously).
Having sold his store (previously) he *bought* a farm (past).
Having sold his store (previously) he *buys* a farm (present).
Having sold his store (previously) he *will buy* a farm (future).

506. The Subject of an Infinitive. — We cannot assert action without asserting it of an actor, nor can we assume action without assuming it of some actor. In such sentences as,

We believe *him* to be truthful, We believe *him* to be a liar,

him should be parsed as the subject of the infinitive, not as the object of *believe*. The object of the transitive verb, *believe*, is the abridged clause, "him to be truthful," or "him to be a liar," just as "he is truthful" is the object of *believe* in the sentence, "We believe he is truthful."

507. In What Case? — What is the case of the subject of the infinitive? In the sentence, "I wish to learn," *I* is the subject of the finite verb, *wish*, and of the infinitive, *to learn*. The finite verb governs it, so it is in the nominative case. But in the sentence, "I wish *her* to learn," *her*, the subject of the infinitive, is not dependent upon any other word and is in the objective case. Hence the following rule: *When the subject of an infinitive depends also upon some other word in the sentence, it is governed by that other word and not by the infinitive; but when the subject of an infinitive does not depend upon any other word, it is in the objective case.*

508. Why? — Why is the subject of an infinitive in the objective case? Simply because it is the subject of the infinitive and not at all on account of the influence of any other word in the sentence. This is made clear by the following illustration: Take the sentence, "We believe him to be truthful." *Him* is evidently objective. What makes it objective? *Believe*, or *to be?* If *believe* does it and *to be* has nothing to do with it, then the pronoun should remain objective so long as it stands in the same relation to *believe*, no matter what *to be* may be changed to; and if *to be* does it and *believe* has nothing to do with it, then the case of the pronoun will change when *to be* is changed to a

finite verb, even if the pronoun does stand in the same relation to *believe*. Try it.

We believe *him* to be truthful.
We believe *he* is truthful.

Therefore, the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case on account of the infinitive, just as the subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case on account of the finite verb. That is, the language has so grown.

509. Examples of infinitives having subjects different from those of the finite verb: —

We believe *him* to be mistaken.
She wishes *them* to leave.
Whom do you wish to have your library?
He is the man *whom* you thought to be me.

510. Examples of infinitives whose subjects are the same as those of the finite verb:—

He does not intend to be mistaken.
She wishes to leave.
Who wishes to have your library?
He is the man *who* was thought to be I.

511. What the Subject of an Infinitive may be:—

(1) A **noun**: We wish *Paul* to sing for us.
(2) A **pronoun**: We wish *him* to sing for us.
(3) A **participle**: He thinks *cheating* me to be beating me.
(4) An **infinitive**: He thinks *to cheat* to be to rob.
(5) A **clause**: He thinks *that I say nothing* to be evidence that I know nothing.

512. The Subject of a Participle. — When the subject of a participle depends upon any other word in the sentence, it is governed by *that other word and not by the participle*, as in —

Mary laughing said no.
I like the *man* talking to you.
He spoke to the *child* carrying the bucket.

Mary is in the nominative case, the subject of *said; man* in the objective case, object of *like; child* in the objective case, object of *to*.

513. But when the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the *possessive case* or *nominative absolute*: —

Harry's leaving pleased all of us.
We do not like *your* objecting to him.
We object to *his* quibbling over it.
Jones having gone away, we engaged Smith.
Our *general* having been wounded, we lost the battle.

514. In the first three sentences the participles have substantive uses in dependent constructions, and the subject of each is in the possessive case; but in the last two the participles have no connection with any part of their sentences except their subjects, and the subjects, *Jones* and *general*, are each in the nominative absolute case. The following rule sums it all up: *When the subject of a participle does not depend upon any other word in the sentence, it is in the possessive case or nominative absolute: possessive when the participle has a substantive use in a dependent construction, and absolute when the participle, together with its subject, is used independently.*

515. The Complement of a Copulative Infinitive. — It has been explained that an infinitive, like a finite verb, may be attributive or copulative; as, "We expected him *to speak*," "We expected him *to be* the speaker." When copulative, it is completed by an adjective or a substantive expression; as, "We thought him to be *well*," "We thought him to be a *doctor*." When the complement of an infinitive is a substantive, what is its case? The same as that of the subject, — usually objective but sometimes nominative: —

We thought George to be *John* (objective).
We believed him to be *you* (objective).
We expect to be *gentlemen* (nominative).
We were thought to be *you* (nominative).
I was thought to be *she* (nominative).

It is good to remember: *The complement of a copulative verb is in the same case as its subject.* To this rule there is but one exception. See article 267.

516. The Complement of a Copulative Participle. — When the subject of a copulative participle is nominative absolute, the complement is nominative absolute; as, "*He* being a *scholar*, we believed him." When the subject of a copulative participle is nominative, the complement is nominative; as, "*He* being a *scholar* secured the position." But when the subject of a copulative participle is possessive, the complement is not possessive, but nominative; as, "*His* being a *scholar* was not questioned." This is the one exception referred to in the foregoing section.

517. The Double Nature of Infinitives and Participles. — They always perform the office of verbs; and in addition to its verbal use, every infinitive and participle has also the use of *a noun*, *an adjective*, or *an adverb*. This additional use is commonly called its *construction*. An infinitive or a participle is first parsed as a verb and is then said to have the construction of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. *An infinitive or a participle has the construction of a noun when it is used as nouns are used; the construction of an adjective when it is used as adjectives are used; the construction of an adverb when it is used as adverbs are used.* Discuss the construction of each infinitive and participle in the following sentences: —

I like *to read* good books.
We came *to assist* the children.
The coat *to be worn* by Henry is on Samuel.
Doing things is better than *dreaming* dreams.
The boy *sitting* by you is my cousin.
He came in *scraping* his feet on the floor.

518. Construction of a Noun. — An infinitive or participle may be used in any construction a noun has except the

possessive. Discuss the infinitives and participles in the following sentences: —

(1) *Subject of a finite verb.*

To study grammar is necessary
Studying grammar is necessary.

(2) *Object of a transitive verb.*

We like *to study* history.
We like *studying* history.

(3) *Object of a preposition.*

We like it all but *to be criticized.*
We like it all but *being criticized.*

(4) *The complement of a finite copula.*

To study grammar is to *learn* it.
Studying grammar is *learning* it.

(5) *The subject of another infinitive.*

Some think *to study* grammar to be disagreeable.
Some think *studying* grammar to be disagreeable.

(6) *The complement of an infinitive copula.*

We believe to study a subject to be *to understand* it.
We believe studying a subject to be *understanding* it.

(7) *The subject of a participle (absolute).*

To rest having been forbidden, we worked.
Resting having been forbidden, we worked.

(8) *The complement of a copulative participle (absolute).*

To rest being *to sit* in the sun, we chose to work (absolute).
Resting being *sitting* in the sun, we chose working (absolute).

(9) *In apposition.*

To study anything diligently, *to give* it sufficient attention, is to master it.

Studying a thing diligently, *giving* it sufficient attention, is mastering it.

NOTE. — A substantive in any of these eight constructions may have an infinitive or a participle in apposition with it. Illustrate in writing.

519. Construction of an Adjective. — Recall the different uses of adjectives and compare with them the uses of the following italicized infinitives and participles: —

He gave me permission *to use* his tools.
The dog *barking* at you is Towser.
The men are *to blame*.
Coal is *to be found* in Pennsylvania.

The ideas expressed are *usable* permission, *barking* dog, *blamable* men, and *findable* coal; and these are clearly *adjective* ideas. Neither an infinitive nor an active participle can be used as a resultant adjective.

520. Construction of an Adverb. — Whenever an infinitive or a participle performs any of the offices of an adverb, it is said *to have the construction of an adverb:* —

Purpose: We came *to learn*.
Manner: Everything went *to suit* me.
He came *stumbling* over the doorstep.
Degree: The child is old enough *to walk*.
Cause: We grieved *to hear* it.
Mere futurity: He fell *to rise* no more.

Note very carefully and make or find sentences to illustrate the following:

(1) *An infinitive commonly has the construction of a noun or an adverb, very rarely that of an adjective.*

(2) *A participle commonly has the construction of an adjective or a noun, very rarely that of an adverb.*

521. How to determine the Construction of an Infinitive or Participle. — In most cases it is easy enough to determine the construction of an infinitive or a participle. It is helpful to observe what part of speech the word is that takes the place of the infinitive or participle. Thus, "He likes *to learn*" is almost equivalent to "He likes *education*." "Time *to come* is beyond our control" is the same as "*Future* time is beyond our control." "He is skillful in *building* houses" expresses the same thought as "He

is skillful in *architecture*." Another means of determining the construction of an infinitive or participle is to expand it into a clause and observe what use the clause performs. Thus, "He desires *me to see you*" is the same as "He desires *that I see you*," in which *that I see you* is a substantive clause. "He came here *to learn grammar*" is equivalent to "He came here *that he might learn grammar*," in which *that he might learn grammar* is an adverbial clause. "The boy *sitting on the bench* struck me" is the same as "The boy *that sits on the bench* struck me," in which *that sits on the bench* is an adjective clause. In many sentences, of course, the construction is not so apparent.

522. The Construction belongs to the Entire Clause or Phrase. — When an infinitive or a participle is used in a clause or phrase, it is the entire clause or phrase that has the construction of a noun, adjective, or adverb; as, "He wishes *me to teach history*," "The man *selling the apples* is Mr. Jones."

523. A Participle becomes a Noun when it is immediately preceded by *the* and followed by *of;* as, "The *closing* of the bank caused much alarm." Here, and in all similar sentences, the word, though retaining the participial form, is not a participle at all, for it has no verbal use. It is merely a participial noun.

524. A Participle becomes a Direct Adjective when it is made to limit a noun immediately following it; as in "The *driving* winds," "The *roaring* cannon," "The *rushing* waves." The italicized words have no verbal force and are mere adjectives.

525. A Participle becomes a Predicate Adjective. — When a word having the form of an active participle performs the office of a predicate adjective, it loses its verbal nature; as, "Wealth is *deceiving*," "Time is *fleeting*," "Children

are *amusing.*" Such as the italicized words are *participial predicate adjectives.* Passive participles frequently have the construction of predicate adjectives; as, "He lives there *loved* by everybody."

526. A Participle becomes a Resultant or Factitive Adjective; as in, "His peculiarities made him *amusing,*" "Iron's density makes it *deceiving.*"

527. The Progressive Form of a Finite Verb is formed with the present active participle and some form of the verb *to be;* as, "Marshall *is plowing* the field," "We *are reciting* our lessons." Be careful to distinguish the progressive form of a finite verb, as in, "He *is pleasing* me," from the copula and predicate adjective, as in, "Your conduct *is pleasing.*" And both of these must be distinguished from the copulative verb followed by a participle with the construction of a predicate noun; as in, "Doing what a man wants done *is pleasing* him."

528. It is difficult to distinguish —

(*a*) *An infinitive with the construction of a direct adjective from one with the construction of a noun in apposition,* as in —

(1) My desire *to teach* is now satisfied.
(2) My task *to teach* is pleasant.

(*b*) *An infinitive with the construction of a predicate adjective from one with the construction of a predicate noun,* as in —

(1) George is *to blame* (blamable).
(2) Iron is not *to be found* (findable) here.
(3) To die is *to cease* to live (death is the cessation of life).
(4) The way to believe is *to investigate* (investigation).

529. Infinitives and Participles are alike in —

(1) *Both are verbs.*
(2) *Both are unlimited by person and number.*
(3) *Both assume, and not assert, action, being, and state.*
(4) *Both express time relatively, not absolutely.*
(5) *Both have the constructions of nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.*

530. Infinitives and Participles are unlike in —

(1) *The participial form of a verb may lose its verbal nature and become a mere noun*, "The *painting* of pictures," *or a mere adjective*, "*Howling* wolves"; *while the infinitive, though it is used either substantively*, "*To paint* pictures is difficult," *or adjectively*, "The time *to paint* pictures is when one feels like it," *never loses its verbal nature.*

(2) *The infinitive usually has the sign* **to** *before it, while the only sign of the participle is its form.*

(3) *The infinitive commonly has the construction of* **a noun** *or* **an adverb**, *and very rarely that of* **an adjective**; *while the participle commonly has the construction of* **an adjective** *or* **a noun**, *and very rarely that of* **an adverb**.

531. The Sign of the Infinitive is *to*. When it immediately precedes the infinitive form of the verb, it is merely a sign and has no governing power. It cannot be considered a preposition.

532. *The sign* **to** is often lengthened into *in order to;* as, "He came *in order to learn.*" In such sentences, *in order to learn* should be parsed as the infinitive. It gives a wrong meaning to divide the phrase.

533. The sign is omitted after the active verbs *make*, *let*, *see*, *hear*, also after the adverbs *rather* and *lief;* as, "Make him *come* in," "I had as lief not *be*," etc. The omission of the sign is optional after *dare*, *help*, *need*, and *please*, and some others.

The omission of the sign after *make* and *bid* is confined to positive expressions. One would say, "Bid him *come* in," or, "Bid him not *to come* in."

When the verbs *have* and *see* are followed by a passive infinitive, the verb *be*, as well as the sign *to*, is often suppressed; as, "They would have him [to be] *killed.*" "I saw him [to be] *sentenced.*"

(*a*) The student must learn from language itself what is the best usage. He will often find that the sign is expressed in a sentence, which, when put in a slightly different form, would require the sign to be omitted; as, "I dare you *to do* it;" "Dare you *do* it?" "I dare *to do*, but I dare not *die.*"

(*b*) In English, the infinitive without its sign generally has the same form as the present indicative, and they are often spoken of together, but they are so different in use that they demand separate treatment.

(*c*) *Need* was formerly an auxiliary. It is still used in the third person singular without inflection when followed by an infinitive; as, He *need* not fear.

534. Independent Use of Infinitives and Participles. — There are several absolute constructions of infinitives and participles, but in a sentence like, "*To tell* the truth, I do not like him," the infinitive may be parsed as having the construction of an adverb of purpose, limiting a verb understood. Here, to supply the ellipsis, it would read, "To tell the truth, [I confess] I do not like him." If we wish to parse *to tell* without supplying anything, all that can be done is to say that it is an infinitive used independently.

535. Definition of Infinitives and Participles. — We began our discussion with the preliminary statement, — *Infinitives and Participles are forms of the verb.* This statement is not inaccurate, but cannot be regarded as an exhaustive definition. We should be able to do better at the end of our discussion. Let us try.

536. In the first place, infinitives and participles are so much more alike than different that it is better to define them together; and in the next place, their definition must gather up these four elements: —

(1) Infinitives and participles are forms of the verb.

(2) They are impersonal, that is, their form does not change with the person and number of their subjects.

(3) They always assume and never assert.

(4) In addition to its verbal nature every infinitive and participle has the use or construction of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

537. Infinitives and participles *are impersonal verbs that always assume and never assert, and that have the additional uses of nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.*

538. Parsing of Infinitives and Participles.

(*a*) Require pupils to state *definitely* the construction of every infinitive or participle. It is not enough to say of it simply that it has the construction of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb. Expressly state whether it has the construction of a noun in the nominative case, or of a noun in the objective case; whether it has the construction of a direct adjective, a predicate adjective, or a resultant adjective; and if it has the construction of an adverb, state definitely the idea it expresses, whether of time, purpose, cause, etc. Also observe whether it is the infinitive or participle alone, or its entire clause, that should be given the construction of a noun, adjective, or adverb.

539. Models for Parsing.

(1) He has gone *to find* his hat.
(2) He came *attended* by his friends.
(3) The apples are *to be picked* to-morrow.
(4) I believe him *to have been* mistaken.

(1) **To find**, v., trans., attrib., irreg., — find, found, found, — act., inf., pres. with the con. of an adv. of purpose, limiting *has gone*, Rules XVI and XI.

(2) [**Being**] **attended**, v., trans., attrib., reg., pass., part., pres., with the con. of a pred. adj., limiting *he*, Rules XVI and X.

(3) **To be picked**, v., trans., attrib., reg., pass., inf., pres., with the con. of a pred. adj., limiting *apples*, Rules XVI and X.

(4) **To have been**, v., intrans., cop., irreg., — am, was, been, — inf., pres. perf., the entire abridged clause, *him to have been mistaken*, has the con. of a noun in the objective case, obj. of *believe*, Rules XVI and IV.

(*a*) This form of parsing does not necessarily give case to the infinitive or participle, but only tells what case would be given to a noun so used. But for that matter, there is no good reason for denying case to our infinitives and participles, for, in English, case means *not form* but *relation*.

540. Sentences for Parsing.

(*a*) Give the complete written parsing, according to the models, of all italicized words, and of all others assigned by the teacher. (*b*) Sev-

eral of the following sentences are ambiguous. See that the pupil understands all possible meanings of each sentence, and which meaning was probably the one intended. See, also, that he can give the parsing corresponding to each meaning.

(1) *To sin* is *to suffer.*

(2) He likes *to rest.*

(3) They have come *to assist* us.

(4) *Training* horses is *making* them useful.

(5) He came *tumbling* in at the door.

(6) Let us *get* permission *to remain.*

(7) The boy is anxious *to have* his trial.

(8) I come not here *to talk.*

(9) Flee from the wrath *to come.*

(10) The curious go *to church to see;* the vain, *to be seen.*

(11) The dog *lying* by the child *is protecting* her.

(12) A letter *written* with a pen is more desirable than one *done* on a typewriter.

(13) Learn *to live* and live *to learn.*

(14) It is wrong *to deceive* children.

(15) *To see* a thing is *to believe* it.

(16) He believes *trying to be succeeding.*

(17) The task *to write* an essay was assigned *me.*

(18) *Lying, telling* untruths, is *deserving* of punishment.

(19) Sometimes *to read* seems not *to be to understand.*

(20) *Studying* seems *to be learning.*

(21) *Having enjoyed reading* Shakespeare an hour, let *us get* our lessons.

(22) She does *nothing but criticize.*

(23) The *rustling* of the leaves frightened us.

(24) The *rustling* leaves frightened us.

(25) The leaves *rustling* near us frightened us.

(26) *To return* home after this, never! never!

(27) *Making* sport of a poor simpleton, how rude!

(28) She is *to blame* for *keeping* us *waiting.*

(29) *Murdering* her own child, how dreadful!

(30) He sits there *growling* instead of *giving* thanks.

(31) In time *to come* we may succeed *better.*

(32) This campaign seems more *exciting.*

(33) He fell *to rise* no more.

(34) The child is not *well enough to stay.*

(35) He did his work *well enough to get* the prize.

(36) The desire *to please* is *worthy of being cultivated.*

(37) *Being* brief and yet clear, that is most difficult.

(38) She thought *to study to be better than to be scolded.*

(39) Good books and magazines *discussing* all current events *are to be found* here.

(40) *Please excuse* me for *writing* to you.

(41) Please excuse me from *writing* to you.

(42) We saw *him fall.*

(43) We saw *him walking* down the street.

(44) He thought merely *to ask to be to get what* he asked *for.*

(45) He is considered *to be* reliable.

(46) He blames *us for being interesting.*

(47) For one *to know what to try to be* is *as* difficult *as to be what* one undertakes *to be.*

(48) Suddenly *there came a tapping, as of* some one gently *rapping, rapping* at my chamber door.

(49) Let *us try to discover what* is the *cause* of *our being pleased* with beauty.

(50) The *author* of *our being pleased us* by *filling* the world with beauty.

WRITTEN REVIEW OF INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

(1) Define a verb.

(2) What infinitive and what participial forms are obtained from every intransitive verb? Illustrate.

(3) From every transitive verb? Illustrate. Designate each form with reference to both tense and voice.

(4) What is the meaning of the word *infinitive?* Show its application to the verb forms we are discussing. Why are participles some times called infinitives?

(5) Is it better to class infinitives and participles as verbs or as some other part of speech? Why?

(6) What is meant by *gerund, gerundive, an infinitive* in *ing?* Illustrate.

(7) Show that finite verbs do not always assert, and that infinitives and participles never assert but only assume.

(8) What general statement can you make about the resemblance of infinitives and participles to finite verbs?

(9) Show that they have the classes of verbs: (*a*) Transitive and Intransitive, (*b*) Attributive and Copulative, (*c*) Regular and Irregular.

(10) Show that they may express action, being, or state.

(11) That they may be modified by adverbial and objective elements.

(12) That they have the properties of verbs: (*a*) Voice, (*b*) Mode, (*c*) Tense.

(13) What tenses do infinitives and participles have ?

(14) What time is expressed by each of these tenses ? Illustrate.

(15) What parts of speech may govern objects ? Show that infinitives and participles may govern objects.

(16) What is the only part of speech that has a subject ? Show that infinitives and participles have subjects.

(17) In what case is the subject of an infinitive ? Illustrate.

(18) What governs the subject of an infinitive ? Prove it.

(19) What may the subject of an infinitive be ? Illustrate.

(20) In what case is the subject of a participle ? Illustrate.

(21) Show that infinitives and participles when copulative may be completed by either adjective or substantive expressions.

(22) In what case is the complement of an infinitive copula ? Illustrate.

(23) In what case is the complement of a participial copula ? Illustrate.

(24) Give the general rule for the case of the complement of a copulative verb. Illustrate it fully and explain the exception to it.

(25) What is meant by the double nature of a part of speech ?

(26) In addition to their verbal use, what other offices do infinitives and participles perform ? Illustrate.

(27) Name other parts of speech that perform double offices. Explain and illustrate.

(28) Illustrate with original sentences all the different noun or substantive constructions infinitives and participles may have.

(29) Show their different adjective uses. Their adverbial uses.

(30) What constructions do infinitives commonly have ?

(31) What constructions do participles commonly have ?

(32) How do you determine the construction of an infinitive or participle ? Illustrate.

(33) Show that the construction properly belongs to the entire clause or phrase in which the infinitive or participle is found.

(34) When does a participle become a noun ? Illustrate.

(35) When does a participle become an adjective, — direct, predicate resultant ? Illustrate.

(36) Distinguish the progressive form of a finite verb from a copula and a predicate adjective having the same form as a present active participle.

(37) Distinguish an infinitive with the construction of a direct adjective from one with the construction of a noun in apposition.

(38) Distinguish an infinitive with the construction of a predicate adjective from one with the construction of a predicate noun.

(39) In what are infinitives and participles alike ? Unlike ?

(40) Tell what you know about the sign of the infinitive. Discuss the independent or absolute use of infinitives and participles.

(41) Define infinitives and participles.

ANALYSIS.

541. Grammatical Analysis *is such a separation of the sentence as will show how its parts are related.*

542. The **value of analysis** may be very great.

(1) It impresses the principles governing the construction of the sentence.

(2) It leads the student to relate ideas, and to see that their relations determine the relations of the parts of the sentence that express them. One's analysis of a sentence, therefore, will always depend upon his understanding of its thought.

(3) It enables the class and the teacher to compare different understandings.

(4) It cultivates clearness, accuracy, precision, and facility of expression.

(5) It leads to the habit of general analytic thought.

(6) It is exceedingly interesting.

543. Form of Analysis. — It is always **mental.** It may be also either **oral** or **written.** Again, written analysis may be **in full** or by **diagram.** Writing the analysis in full affords valuable exercise in punctuation, capitalization, spelling, and neatness, but the teacher should not require more of it than is necessary to the end sought.

544. Analysis by diagram, like all analysis, and indeed like all grammar, is often objected to as a shameful waste of time; but in almost every case the objection comes from persons who have attempted to teach grammar and failed, from teachers of other subjects jealous of the interest they see manifested in grammar, or from persons who are not teachers at all and never have been, but gratuitously volunteer their pedagogical omniscience for the

guidance of us who are teachers. All real teachers may be pardoned if they decline to be disturbed by such objections or to take them seriously.

545. A caution, however, is in place. Just for the reason that analysis, whether oral, written, or by diagram, is interesting, it is likely to be overdone. This the teacher and class must try to avoid.

546. To analyze a sentence is to describe it fully as a sentence, to designate its elements, describe them, state their relation to one another and to the sentence as a whole.

547. This makes it necessary, as a preparation for analysis, to study (1) *the classification of sentences* and (2) *the classification of elements.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

548. (*A*) **Sentence** *is the expression of a thought in words.* Sentences are classified *as to* **rank**, *as to* **structure**, and *as to* **use.**

549. (*A*) **As to rank**, sentences are *Principal* or *Subordinate.*

550. (*A*) **Principal Sentence** *is one not used as a modifier.*

551. (*A*) **Subordinate Sentence** *is one used as an element in a principal sentence.*

(*a*) "He is reliable" is a principal sentence, but in "I believe he is reliable," *he is reliable* is a subordinate sentence, and "I believe he is reliable" is a principal sentence.

552. A **Subordinate Sentence** is called also a **clause.**

553. Clauses are *substantive*, *adjective*, *adverbial*, according as they perform the office of a *noun*, *adjective*, or *adverb.*

554. A **Substantive Clause** may be: —

(1) *The subject of a verb:*
That he is reliable is certain.
We believe *that he is reliable* to be the reason he succeeds.

(2) *The complement of a copula :* —
Our belief is *that he is reliable.*
We believe the reason of his success to be *that he is reliable.*
(3) *The object of a verb :* —
We hope *that he is reliable.*
(4) *The object of a preposition :* —
They are talking about *who is most reliable.*
(5) *In apposition :* —
The question, *Is he reliable*, was asked.

555. An **Adverbial Clause** may modify : —

(*a*) An *adverb* or an *adjective* to express *degree :* —
He speaks **better** than *I can write.*
He is **better** than *John is.*

(*b*) A *verb* to express :—
(1) *Time :* The bird **sings** when the sun shines.
(2) *Place :* Why not **remain** *where you have prospered ?*
(3) *Condition :* You **will be elected** if *George votes for you.*
(4) *Manner :* I **copy** it *as he wrote it.*
(5) *Purpose :* We **left** that *he might do his work.*
(6) *Reason :* We **stayed** because *the boys were there.*
(7) *Opposition* or *concession :* Though *he were dead*, yet **shall** he **live.**

Such clauses are introduced by *though, although, notwithstanding,* and *however.* Here these words are treated as subordinate conjunctions, joining subordinate clauses to verbs ; but, as already stated, good grammarians often regard them as coördinate conjunctions, connecting disjunctive sentences.

556. An **Adjective Clause** always modifies a *substantive*, and may be either *restrictive* or *explanatory.*

557. (1) *A* **Restrictive Clause** *is one that restricts the predication of the principal sentence :* "Dogs *that are vicious* should be killed." Here the restrictive clause *that are vicious* keeps the principal sentence from saying : "*Dogs should be killed.*"

558. (2) *An* **Explanatory Clause** *is one that explains its antecedent or adds a thought to the one expressed by the principal part of the sentence :* —

Dogs, *which are man's friends*, should be well treated.
The dogs, *which had been driving the sheep*, came up for their dinners.

(*a*) The *explanatory* clause is called also *nonrestrictive*. For fuller explanation of explanatory and restrictive clauses see p. 69.

559. (*B*) **As to structure,** sentences are *Simple*, *Compound*, *Partial-Compound*, *Complex*, *Complete*, and *Abridged*.

560. *A* **Simple Sentence** *is a single statement:* —

The men are honest. Are the men honest? Men, be honest.

561. *A* **Compound Sentence** *is one containing two or more sentences of equal rank, joined by one or more coördinate connectives:* —

He made a good effort and he succeeded.

(*a*) The sentences in a compound sentence may be designated as *first member*, *second member*, etc.

562. *A* **Partial-Compound Sentence** *is one in which either or both of the principal elements are compound.*

Henry and James came. Henry came and went.

563. *A* **Complex Sentence** *is one containing one or more complete subordinate sentences.* The subordinate sentence itself may be either simple, compound, or complex: —

We believe *you are industrious.*
If *you are industrious and she is economical*, your future is safe.
I believe *you were industrious when you were young.*

564. *A* **Complete Sentence** *is one whose verb is finite:* —

You are mistaken.

565. *An* **Abridged Sentence** *is one whose verb is an infinitive or a participle:* —

I believe *you to be mistaken.* *You being mistaken*, we are lost.

566. (*C*) **As to use,** sentences are *Declarative*, *Interrogative*, *Exclamatory*, and *Imperative*.

567. *A* **Declarative Sentence** *is one that asserts or denies:* —

You are mistaken. You are not mistaken.

568. *An* **Interrogative Sentence** *is one that asks a question:* —

Are you mistaken?

569. *An* **Exclamatory Sentence** *is one used in exclamation:* —

How much mistaken you are !

570. *An* **Imperative Sentence** *is one whose verb is in the imperative mode:* —

Do not be mistaken.

CLASSIFICATION OF ELEMENTS.

571. **Elements** *are the constituent parts of sentences.*

572. *Elements* are classified *as to rank*, *as to form*, *as to use*, and *as to base*.

573. **As to rank**, elements are *Principal* and *Subordinate*.

574. **Principal Elements** *are those without which a sentence cannot exist.* They are the *Subject* and *Predicate*.

575. *The* **Subject** *of a sentence is the part which expresses that of which something is predicated.*

(*a*) The subject is always a substantive.

(*b*) The unmodified subject is called the *simple subject*, and the simple subject together with its modifiers is called the *complex subject*.

576. *The* **Predicate** *of a sentence is the part that makes the predication.* It consists of a *copula* and an *attribute:* —

(1) Iron *is heavy*. (2) Copper *is* a *metal*. (3) Mr. Jones *preaches*.

In (1) and (2), *is heavy* and *is metal* are the predicates, of which *is* is the copula of each. *Heavy* and *metal* are the *attributes*. In (3), the copula and attribute are combined in the verb, *preaches*.

(*a*) When the verb is copulative, it requires the verb and another word to express the predicate; but when the verb is attributive, it alone may be the predicate: —

Mr. Jones *preaches* = Mr. Jones *is* a *preacher*.

(*b*) *A predicate must always be a verb or contain one*, since a verb is the only part of speech that can predicate. When the verb is copulative, then an *adjective* or a *noun*, or some other expression so used, may express the idea that is predicated, that is, may form the *attributive part of the predicate;* but, as already stated, when the verb is attributive, it both

predicates and expresses the idea predicated, — is both *copula* and *attribute*. See copulative and attributive verbs, pp. 96–99.

(*c*) **The Attribute**, the attributive part of the predicate, is always a *substantive* or an *adjective* or an expression so used.

577. As a substantive the attribute may be : —

(1) A **noun** : He is a *doctor*.
(2) A **pronoun** : I am *he*.
(3) An **infinitive** : His occupation is *to build* houses.
(4) A **participle** : His occupation is *building* houses.
(5) A **clause** : The question is, *can he build the house ?*

578. As an adjective the attribute may be : —

(1) An **adjective** : She is *capable*.
(2) An **infinitive** : Coal is *to be found* (findable) in Indiana.
(3) A **prepositional phrase** : Our nation is *for peace* (peaceable).

579. As to form, elements are *Simple*, *Compound*, *Partial-Compound*, and *Complex*.

580. *A* **Simple Element** *is one without modifiers, or thought of apart from its modifiers : —*

In "The little boy runs rapidly," *rapidly* is a simple element; also, *boy* and *runs*, when considered apart from their modifiers, are simple elements.

581. *A* **Compound Element** *is one having a compound base : —*

Brown and Ball went *to Buffalo and to Brooklyn*.

582. *A* **Partial-Compound Element** *is one a part of whose base is compound : —*

He *is honest and capable*.
They came *from town and country*.

583. *A* **Complex Element** *is one whose base or some part of it is modified : —*

The little squirrels climbed *the tall tree*.
We are sitting *on the new couch*.
The man that spoke to you is Mr. Swinburn.

(*a*) **The base** of an element is the part of it that expresses its primary idea. It may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

(*b*) **When the base of an element is a clause**, *the form of the element is the same as that of the clause.* That is, a simple clause is a simple element, a compound clause is a compound element, and a complex clause is a complex element : —

A boy *that studies* gets along.
A boy *that studies and that has hard lessons* develops.
A boy *that studies when he has hard lessons* gets them.

(*c*) **As to use**, elements are *Adjective*, *Objective*, *Subjective*, *Adverbial*, *Attendant*, and *Connective.*

584. *An* **Adjective Element** *is one that modifies a substantive as an adjective does : —*

The old dog *that lay in the corner* watched *the* plate *on the table.*

585. *An* **Objective Element** *is one that is the object of a transitive verb : —*

Buy only the *books that* you wish *to use.*

586. *A* **Subjective Element** *is one used as the subject of a verb : —*

We wish *him* to understand it.

587. *An* **Adverbial Element** *is one that has the modifying force of an adverb : —*

He came *promptly* and stood *by the table.*

588. *An* **Attendant Element** *is one that has a logical, but not a grammatical connection with the sentence : —*

Night having come upon us, we were obliged to stop.

589. *A* **Connective Element** *is one joining two parts of the sentence.*

590. There are two classes of connectives : *Coördinate* and *Subordinate.*

591. *A* **Coördinate Connective** *is one that joins elements of equal rank;* that is, elements *in the same grammatical construction.* It is always a *coördinate conjunction.*

592. *A* **Subordinate Connective** *is one that joins elements of unequal rank;* that is, elements *not in the same grammatical construction.*

593. It may be, —

(1) **A subordinate conjunction**: He will do it **if** he says he will.

(2) **A relative pronoun**: This is the dog **that** worried the cat.

(3) **A relative conjunctive adverb**: There come times **when** we need all our friends.

(4) **An ordinary conjunctive adverb**: Make hay **while** the sun shines.

(5) **A conjunctive adjective**: **As** are the children of today so will be the men and women of tomorrow.

(*a*) In all such sentences, *as* and *so* must be regarded as correlative words having the force of adjectives. The sentence clearly means, "*If* the children are *strong*, the men will be *strong*." *As* performs the offices of both *if* and *strong*, and may therefore be regarded as a *conjunctive adjective*.

594. (*D*) **As to base,** elements are of the *First Class, Second Class*, or *Third Class*.

595. An Element of the First Class *is one whose base is a single word:* —

The furious animal ran rapidly away.

596. An Element of the Second Class *is one whose base is an infinitive or prepositional phrase:* —

The city *of Warsaw* is east *of Chicago.*
He wishes *to learn to write.*

597. An Element of the Third Class *is one whose base is a clause:* —

We shall decide it *when you return.*
That he is capable is certain.
The man *that helped you* is Mr. Bronson.

EXPLANATION OF DIAGRAMS.

598. The importance of the *subject* and *predicate* of the principal sentence is indicated by the heavy line. They are written upon the same line and separated by a heavy vertical bar to show that they are of equal rank. *All modifiers* are placed below and on lighter lines to show that they are subordinate to the subject and predicate.

599. To distinguish an *objective element*, let the line on which it is written be brought down from one that extends over the verb. The *subject of an infinitive* is written upon a line that is joined to one drawn under the infinitive. A *conjunction* is written in a break in a line. A *connective* that is also a *modifier* must be written so as to show both its uses. A dotted line indicates an *appositive element;* a parenthesis, an *independent element.* A short horizontal bar is used to separate a copula and an attribute, also to separate a preposition and its object.

600. *The relative position* of elements in the sentence determines the direction of their lines in the diagram: *Word modifiers* turn to the left when they precede the term modified; to the right when they follow it. *Phrases* (prepositional or infinitive) always turn to the right. *Clauses* turn to the right or left, as is most convenient.

DIAGRAMS AND ANALYSES.

(1) Sugar is sweet.

(2) Truth is a virtue.

(3) Grass grows.

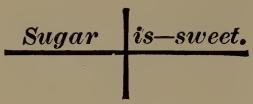
(4) The little children, eager for the story, gave all their attention to the speaker.

(5) Smith, the merchant, is dead.

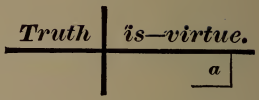
(6) He and I went and we returned.

DIAGRAMMED ANALYSIS.

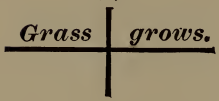
(1)



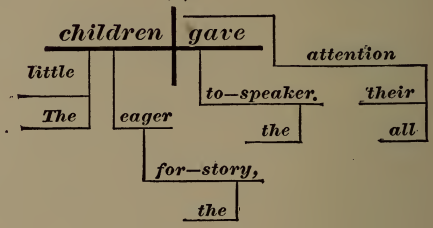
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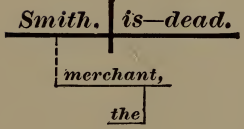
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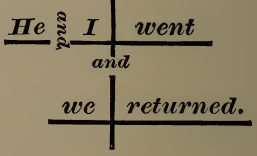
(4)



(5)



(6)



ORDER OF ANALYSIS, WRITTEN OR ORAL.

(1) Describe the sentence { (*a*) As to structure. (*b*) As to use.

(2) Give the complex subject.

(3) Give the simple subject.

(4) Describe its modifiers as to { (*a*) Structure. (*b*) Use. (*c*) Base.

(5) Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.

(6) Give the complex predicate.

(7) Give the simple predicate.

(8) Describe the modifiers of the predicate as to { (*a*) Structure. (*b*) Use. (*c*) Base.

(9) Give the base of each modifier and describe its modifiers as above.

(*a*) The pupil should follow the above order with the utmost precision. In this way he will most readily learn to analyze, and at the same time receive one of the very best of drills in careful, accurate, rapid thinking; while to attempt to analyze without following *any* particular order not only defeats the object so far as a lesson in grammar is concerned, but is also a very effective means of creating inattention in the class and of giving to the pupil himself a habit of carelessness in thought and expression.

WRITTEN ANALYSIS.

(1) *Sugar is sweet* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Sugar* is the simple subject, unmodified; and *is sweet* is the simple predicate, unmodified; *is*, the copula, and *sweet* the attribute.

(2) *Truth is a virtue* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Truth* is the simple subject, unmodified; and *is a virtue* is the complex predicate; *is virtue*, the simple predicate, *is*, the copula, unmodified; and *virtue*, the attribute, modified by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(3) *Grass grows* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Grass* is the simple subject, and *grows*, the simple predicate.

(4) *The little children, eager for the story, gave all their attention to the speaker* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *The little children, eager for the story*, is the complex subject, of which *children* is the simple subject, modified by *the* and *little*, two simple adjective elements of the first class; also by *eager for the story*, a complex adjective element of the first class, of which *eager* is the base, modified by *for the story*, a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which *for story* is the base, of which *story*, the noun, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

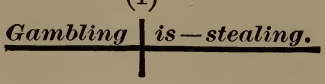
(5) *Smith, the merchant, is dead* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *Smith, the merchant*, is the complex subject, of which *Smith* is the simple subject, modified by *the merchant*, a complex adjective element of the first class; *merchant*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, of which sentence also *is dead* is the simple predicate, unmodified; *is* the copula, and *dead* the attribute.

(6) *He and I went and we returned* is a compound declarative sentence, of which *He and I went* is the leading, partial-compound, declarative sentence, of which *He and I* is the compound subject, and *and*, the coördinate connective; of which sentence, also, *went* is the simple predicate. Of the compound sentence, *and* is the coördinate connective, and *we returned* is the coördinate, simple, declarative sentence, of which *we* is the simple subject, and *returned* the simple predicate, both unmodified.

ADJECTIVES, PARTICIPLES, AND PHRASES.

(1) *Gambling* is *stealing.*

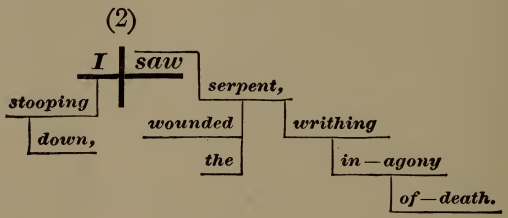
(1)



Gambling has the construction of a subject noun, and *stealing* that of a predicate noun. They are both participles.

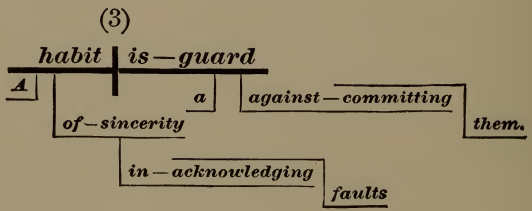
(2) *Stooping* down, I saw the *wounded* serpent, *writing* in agony of death.

(2)



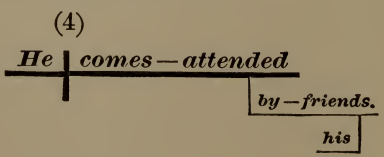
(3) A habit of sincerity in *acknowledging* faults is a guard against *committing* them.

(3)



(4) He comes *attended* by his friends.

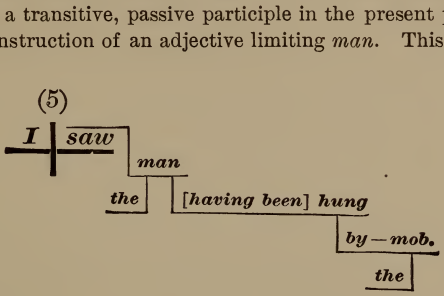
(4)



[*Being*] *attended* is a passive participle with the construction of a predicate adjective.

(5) I saw the man *hung* by the mob.

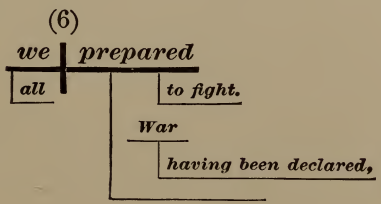
This sentence is ambiguous, as it may mean either that I saw the man after the mob had hung him, or that I witnessed the execution. If the sentence conveys the first meaning, *man* is the object of *saw*, and [*having been*] *hung* is a transitive, passive participle in the present perfect tense, having the construction of an adjective limiting *man*. This would be the diagram: —



Analysis. — (5) *I saw the man hung by the mob* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject unmodified; of which sentence, also, *saw the man hung by the mob*, is the complex predicate; *saw* is the simple predicate, modified by *the man hung by the mob*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *man*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, and by *hung by the mob*, a complex adjective element of the first class, of which [*having been*] *hung*, the base, is modified by *by the mob*, a complex adverbial element of the second class; *by mob* is the base, *mob*, the noun, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(*a*) But if the sentence means to say I witnessed the execution, then [*to be*] *hung* is a present, passive infinitive, and *man* is its subject in the objective case. The abridged clause, *the man* [*to be*] *hung by the mob*, would be the object of *saw*.

(6) War having been declared, we all prepared to fight.



War having been declared is logically, but not grammatically, related to *prepared*.

Analysis. — *War having been declared, we all prepared to fight* is a simple declarative sentence, etc. *Prepared*, the simple predicate, is modified by *to fight*, a simple adverbial element of the second class. It is *logically* modified also by *war having been declared*, which, *grammatically*, is a complex independent or attendant element of the first class, of which *war*, the base, is modified by *having been declared*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

War is a noun in the absolute case, subject of the participle *having been declared*, which has the construction of an adjective limiting *war*.

SENTENCES FOR ANALYSIS.

(1) On a grassy bank stood a tall, *waving* ash, sound to the very core.

(2) God's balance, *watched* by angels, is hung across the sky.

(3) *Mistaking* one for the other, they took him, a little fellow *called* Red Billy, for me.

(4) *There* is no harm in children's *playing* by the roadside.

(5) *There* is no harm in children *playing* by the roadside.

(6) The pardon of the governor prevented his *being hanged.*

(7) I saw a horse *covered* with a blanket.

(8) *Taking* a madman's sword *to prevent* his *doing* mischief cannot be regarded *as robbing* him.

(9) *Scaling* yonder peak, I saw an eagle *wheeling* near its brow.

(10) All *bloodless* lay the *untrodden* snow.

(11) Her chief business was *sauntering* about the neighborhood and *spending* her time in idle gossip.

(12) Ha! laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision *to scorn?*

(13) We heard the rain *beating* upon the doorstep.

(14) We saw the package *opened* by mistake.

(15) *Gambling* is *stealing.*

(16) Did you see the tree *struck* by lightning?

(17) The horse *hitched* to the carriage was sold for *a thousand* dollars.

(18) The *burning* of the capital was outrageous.

(19) Have you not seen strong men *weeping?*

(20) *Having sold* his residence in the city, the man moved to his farm near the lakes.

(21) The general *having been captured*, the army was defeated.

(22) The writer *being* a scholar is not doubted.

(23) The writer's *being* a scholar is not doubted.

(24) I never heard of that man *running* for office.

(25) I never heard of that man's *running* for office.

(26) The child stood *weeping.*

(27) The dog came *limping*.

(28) The philosopher sat *buried* in thought.

(29) No one ever saw fat men *heading* a riot or *herding* together in turbulent mobs.

(30) The bridge at Ashtabula *giving* way, the train fell into the river.

(31) Spring comes *robed* in silken green.

(32) A word can send the crimson color *hurrying* to the cheek with many meanings.

INFINITIVES AND SUBJECTIVE ELEMENTS.

(1) To live is not the whole of life.

(2) A desire to excel in any worthy work is commendable.

(3) We are ready to go at any time.

(4) It is impossible to see the sun at midnight.

(5) He is too gentle to hurt a fly.

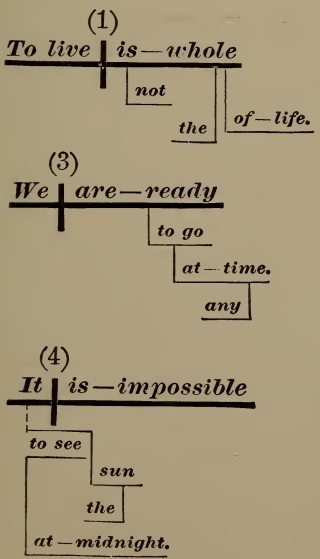
(6) The birds are beginning to migrate.

(7) William is yet to come.

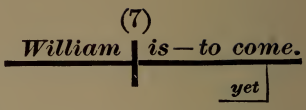
(8) She desired me to become a Mason.

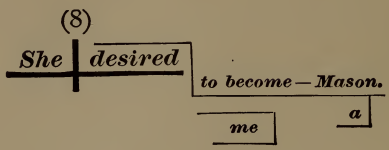
(9) For him to be found in such company is evidence of his guilt.

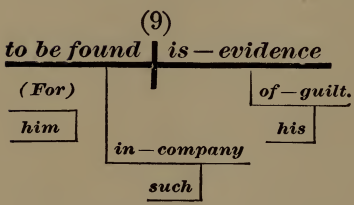
(10) I believe for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility.

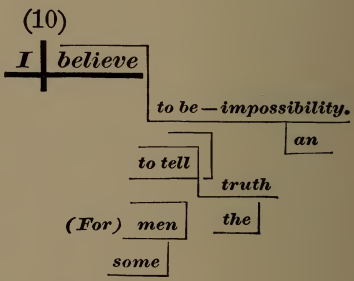












(*a*) *To live* in (1) has the construction of a noun, subject of *is*.

(*b*) *To excel* in (2) has the construction of an adjective limiting *desire*.

(*c*) *To go* in (3) has the construction of an adverb limiting *ready*.

(*d*) *To see* in (4) has the construction of a noun in apposition with *it*.

(*e*) *To hurt* in (5) has the construction of an adverb of degree, limiting *too*.

(*f*) *To migrate* in (6) has the construction of a noun, object of *are beginning*.

(*g*) *To come* in (7) has the construction of a predicate adjective.

(*h*) In (8) the clause, *me to become a Mason*, has the construction of a noun, object of *desired*.

(*i*) *For* in (9) is an introductory expletive, and the clause, *for him to be found in such company*, has the construction of a noun, subject of *is*.

(*j*) In (10), the clause, *for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility*, has the construction of a noun, object of *believe*. The clause, *for some men to tell the truth*, has the construction of a noun in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to be*. *Men* is in the objective case, subject of the infinitive *to tell*, and *for* is an introductory expletive.

Analysis. — (8) *She desired me to become a Mason* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *She* is the simple subject unmodified; of which sentence, also, *desired me to become a Mason* is the complex predicate, of which *desired* is the simple predicate, modified by *me to become a Mason*, a complex objective element of the second class. It is also a simple abridged sentence, of which *to become Mason* is the simple predicate, of which *to become* is the copula, modified by *me*, a simple subjective element of the first class; *Mason*, the attribute, is modified by *a*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

(10) *For some men to tell the truth I believe to be an impossibility* is a simple declarative sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject unmodified. *Believe for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility* is the complex predicate, of which *believe* is the simple predicate, modified by *for some men to tell the truth to be an impossibility*, a complex objective element of the second class; it is also a complex abridged sentence, of which *to be impossibility* is the simple predicate; *impossibility*, the attribute, is modified by *an*, a simple adjective element of the first class; and *to be*, the copula, is modified by *For some men to tell the truth*, a complex subjective element of the second class; it is also a simple, abridged, subordinate sentence, of which *to tell*, the base, is modified by *the truth*, a complex objective element of the first class; *truth*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class. *To tell* is modified, also, by *some men*, a complex subjective element of the first class, of which *men*, the base, is modified by *some*, a simple adjective element of the first class. *For* is an introductory expletive.

DIAGRAM AND ANALYZE.

(1) These apples are not *to be eaten.*

(2) He remained *to assist* in the work.

(3) *For* you *to become* a grammarian will require much study.

(4) *It* is hard work *to plow.*

(5) He thinks *it* delightful *to teach* grammar.

(6) My desire *to teach* is now satisfied.

(7) My task *to teach* is pleasant.

(8) I wish *you* to be a *teacher*, but I wish to be a *preacher.*

(*a*) What is the case of the subject of (1) a finite verb, (2) an infinitive, (3) a participle?

(*b*) In what case is the complement of a copulative verb?

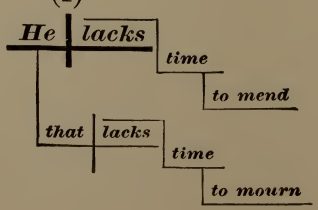
(*c*) Name and illustrate three general uses infinitives and participles have in addition to their verbal use.

(*d*) The (6) and (7) illustrate the difference between an infinitive with the construction of an adjective and one with the construction of a

noun in apposition, which sometimes troubles a beginner. When an infinitive is in apposition, either it or the substantive it modifies may be omitted, leaving a sentence that expresses essentially the same thought; as in (7), My task is pleasant, or, To teach is pleasant; or the two terms may exchange places without changing the meaning; as, To teach, my task, is pleasant. But in (6) *desire* and *to teach* do not mean the same thing; *to teach* merely designates which desire, — *desire for teaching.* It modifies desire, not like an appositive, but like an adjective. It therefore has the construction of an adjective.

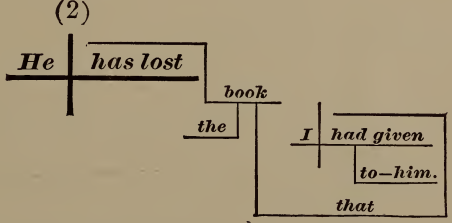
ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

(1) He that lacks time to mourn lacks time to mend.
(2) He has lost the book that I had given to him.
(3) When he had completed his task, the boy went out to play.
(4) He announced that the train had arrived.
(5) That he is the thief is evident.
(6) His objection was that the boy was too young.
(7) It has been claimed that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works.
(8) She is taller than her sister.
(9) It was so cold that the mercury froze.
(10) The Indian knows the place where his friends are buried.
(11) He demanded of them where Christ should be born.
(12) As is the boy so will be the man.
(13) We will work till Jesus comes.
(14) These exercises are as profitable as they are interesting.
(15) When my father and my mother forsake me, then the Lord will take me up.
(16) Blücher arrived on the field of Waterloo just as Wellington was meeting the last onslaught of Napoleon.
(17) The wiser he grew the humbler he became.
(18) I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors.



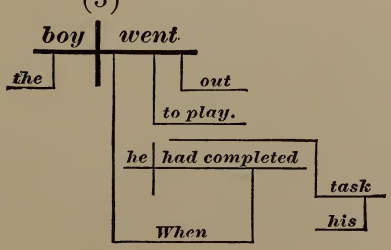
Analysis. — (1) *He that lacks time to mourn lacks time to mend* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *He that lacks time to mourn* is the complex subject; *He*, the simple subject, is modified by *that lacks time to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the simple subject; *that* is also a subordinate connective, joining the clause, *that lacks time to mourn*, to its antecedent, *He;* of which subordinate sentence, also, *lacks time to mourn* is the complex predicate, of which *lacks* is the simple predicate, modified by *time to mourn*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *time*, the base, is modified by *to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the second class; of which principal sentence, also, *lacks time to mend* is the complex predicate, of which *lacks*, the simple predicate, is modified by *time to mend*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *time*, the base, is modified by *to mourn*, a simple adjective element of the second class.

(2)



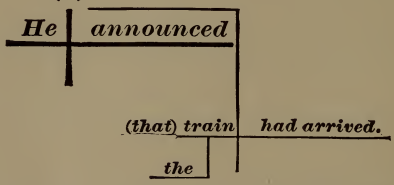
Analysis. — *Book* is modified by *that I had given to him*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple declarative subordinate sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which sentence, also, *had given that to him* is the complex predicate; *had given*, the simple predicate, is modified by *to him*, a simple adverbial element of the second class; also by *that*, a simple objective element of the first class; it is also the subordinate connective, joining to its antecedent, *book*, the subordinate sentence, *that I had given to him.*

(3)



Analysis. — *Went* is modified by *when he had completed his task*, a simple adverbial element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had completed his task when* is the complex predicate; *had completed*, the simple predicate, is modified by *his task*, a complex objective element of the first class, of which *task*, the base, is modified by *his*, a simple adjective element of the first class; *had completed* is modified also by *when*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; it is also a subordinate connective, joining the clause, *when he had completed his task*, to the verb, *went*.

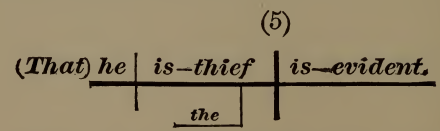
(4)



Analysis. — *He announced that the train had arrived* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *He* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which sentence, also, *announced that the train had arrived* is the complex predicate, of which *announced* is the simple predicate, modified by *that the train had arrived*, a simple objective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, and *the train* is the complex subject, of which *train*, the simple subject, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had arrived* is the simple predicate, unmodified.

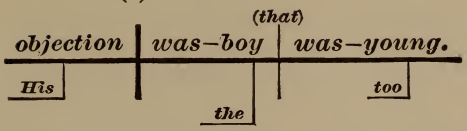
(*a*) A substantive clause needs no connective.

(5)



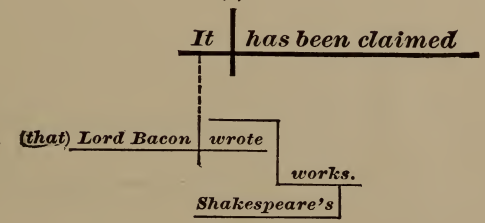
Analysis. — *That he is the thief is evident* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *That he is the thief* is the simple subject. It is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *That* is the introductory expletive, *he* the simple subject, and *is the thief* is the complex predicate, of which *is thief* is the simple predicate, *is* the copula, unmodified, and *thief*, the attribute, modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class. Of the principal sentence, *is evident* is the simple predicate, of which *is* is the copula and *evident* the attribute.

(6)



Analysis. — *Was that the boy was too young* is the simple predicate, of which *was* is the copula, and *that the boy was too young* the attribute; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, and *the boy*, the complex subject; *boy*, the simple subject, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class; of which subordinate sentence, also, *was too young* is the complex predicate, *was young* is the simple predicate, *was* the copula, unmodified, and *young* the attribute, modified by *too*, a simple adverbial element of the first class.

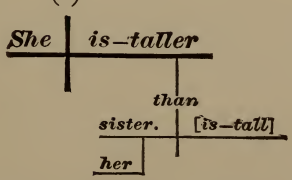
(7)



Analysis. — This is a complex declarative sentence, of which *It*, *that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works*, is the complex subject, of which *It*, the simple subject, is modified by *that Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *that* is the introductory expletive, *Lord Bacon*, the simple subject, etc.

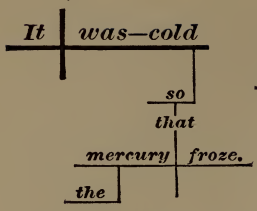
(*a*) *That Lord Bacon wrote Shakespeare's works* is a substantive clause in apposition with *it*.

(8)

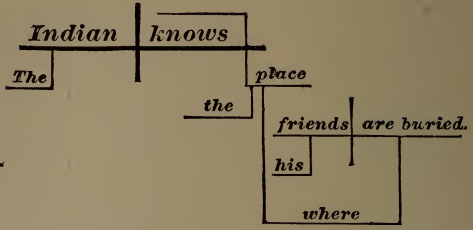


Analysis. — *Taller* is modified by *than her sister is tall*, a simple adverbial element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *than* is the connective, etc.

(9)



(10)

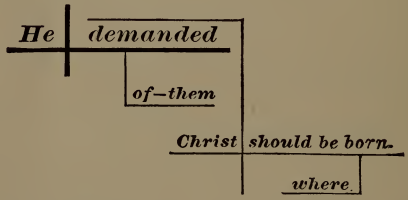


(*a*) *So* in (9) is an adverb of degree, modified by *that the mercury froze*, a simple adverbial element of the third class.

(*b*) *Place* in (10) is modified by *where his friends are buried*, a simple adjective element of the third class.

(*c*) *Where* is a relative conjunctive adverb; its limits *are buried* and joins its clause to the noun *place*.

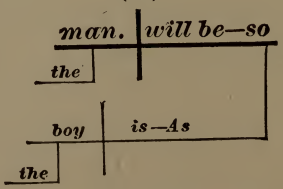
(11)



(*a*) *Demanded* is modified by *where Christ should be born*, a simple objective element of the third class; it is also a simple, indirect-interrogative, subordinate sentence, etc.

(*b*) *Where* is a simple, interrogative adverb, but not a connective. No connective is needed for a substantive clause. It may be well to remember that no interrogative word is ever a connective.

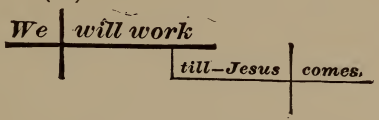
(12)



(*a*) *As . . . so* are correlative, or responsive, indefinite, descriptive, predicate adjectives. They cannot be regarded as adverbs, for *is*, in either sentence, is copulative, not attributive.

(*b*) *Is so* is the predicate of the principal sentence, *is*, the copula, and *so*, the attribute. *So* is modified by *As is the boy*, a simple adverbial element of the third class, of which *is As* is the simple predicate, *is*, the copula, and *As*, the attribute. *As* is also the subordinate connective, joining its subordinate sentence to *so*.

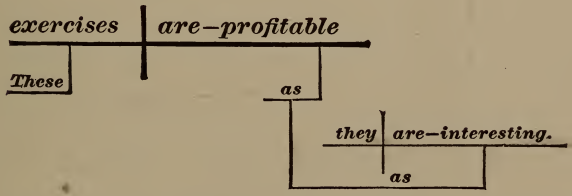
(13)



(*a*) *Will work* is modified by *till Jesus comes*, a simple adverbial element of the second class, of which *till Jesus comes* is the base, *till*, the preposition, and *Jesus comes*, the object; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *Jesus* is the simple subject, and *comes* the simple predicate.

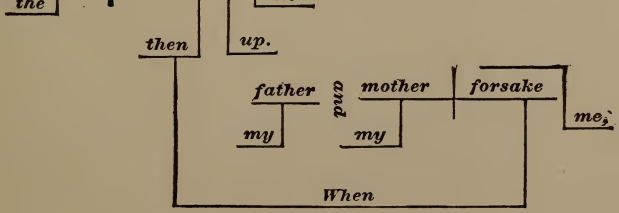
(*b*) *Till* must not be parsed as a conjunctive adverb in such sentences.

(14)



(*a*) *As . . . as* are correlative or responsive adverbs of degree. First *as* is a simple adverb, and limits *profitable*. The second *as* is a conjunctive adverb; it limits *interesting* and joins its subordinate sentence to the first *as*.

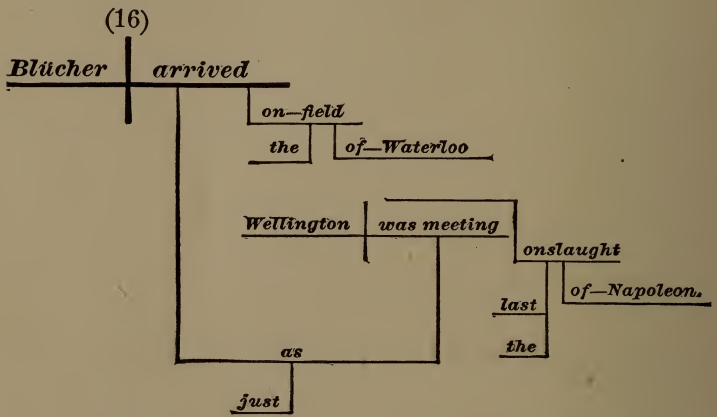
(15)



(*a*) *Then* is modified by *When my father and my mother forsake me*, a partial-compound, adverbial element of the third class; it is also a partial-compound, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *my father and my mother* is the compound, complex subject, of which *my father* is the first member; *father*, the base, is modified by *my*, a simple adjective element of the first class; *my mother* is the second member, of which *mother*, the base, is modified by *my*, a simple adjective element of the first class, etc.

(*b*) *When . . . then* are correlative or responsive adverbs of time. *When* is a conjunctive adverb; it limits *forsake*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *then*, which is a simple adverb and limits *will take*.

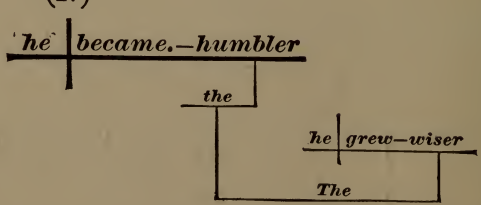
(16)



(*a*) *As* is a conjunctive verb of time; it limits *was meeting*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *arrived*.

(*b*) *Just* is a simple adverb of degree, and limits *as*.

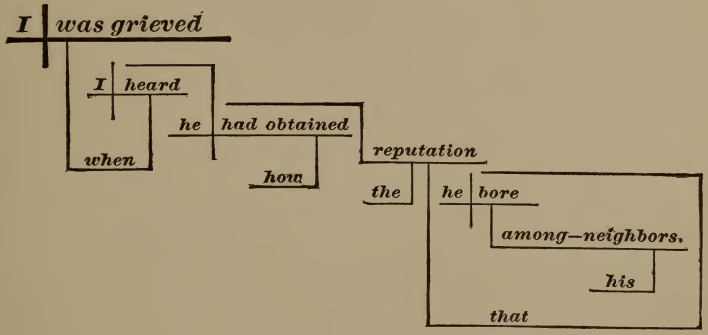
(17)



(*a*) The first *the* is a conjunctive adverb of degree; it limits *wiser*, and joins its subordinate sentence to the second *the*.

(*b*) The second *the* is a simple adverb of degree, and limits *humbler*. *Humbler* and *wiser* are predicate adjectives; *became* and *grew*, copulative verbs. The meaning is, *He became humbler to the degree to which he grew wiser.*

(18)



(*a*) *When* is a conjunctive adverb of time; it limits *heard*, and joins its subordinate sentence to *was grieved.*

(*b*) *How* is an indirect interrogative or responsive adverb of manner, limiting *had obtained.* *How* is not a connective.

(*c*) *That* is a relative pronoun, used as the object of *bore;* it joins its clause to *reputation.*

601. Analysis. — *I was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is a complex declarative sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which sentence, *was grieved when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *was grieved* is the simple predicate, modified by *when I heard how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex adverbial element of the third class; it is also a complex, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *I* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which subordinate sentence, also, *heard when how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *heard* is the simple predicate, modified by *when*, a simple adverbial element of the first class; it is also the subordinate connective, joining the complex adverbial clause to *was grieved; heard* is modified, also, by *how he had obtained the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex objective element of the third class; it is also a complex, indirect-interrogative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject, unmodified; of which subordinate sentence, also, *had obtained how the reputation that he bore among*

his neighbors is the complex predicate, of which *had obtained* is the simple predicate, modified by *how*, a simple adverbial element of the first class, also by *the reputation that he bore among his neighbors*, a complex objective element of the first class; *reputation*, the base, is modified by *the*, a simple adjective element of the first class, also by *that he bore among his neighbors*, a simple adjective element of the third class; it is also a simple, declarative, subordinate sentence, of which *he* is the simple subject, unmodified, of which sentence, also, *bore that among his neighbors* is the complex predicate, of which *bore* is the simple predicate, modified by *that*, a simple objective element of the first class; it is also the connective, joining its clause, *that he bore among his neighbors*, to *reputation; bore* is modified, also, by *among his neighbors*, a complex adverbial element of the second class, of which *among neighbors* is the base, and *neighbors*, the noun, is modified by *his*, a simple adjective element of the first class.

602. Diagram and analyze, giving Particular Attention to Italicized Words: —

(1) The belief *that* stars are suns is held by astronomers.

(2) *There* is no need *that* she be present.

(3) The opinion *that* the soul is immortal has been almost universally entertained.

(4) Let *it be understood that* I will pursue this course no longer.

(5) The man *that* cannot put fire into his speeches should put his speeches into the fire.

(6) The sumptuous cities *that* have lighted the world since the beginning of time are now beheld only in the pictures of the historian of the past.

(7) The smallest dewdrop *that* lies on the meadow at night has a star sleeping in its bosom.

(8) We should endeavor *to secure* the friendship of the Being *that* holds in His hands the reins of the universe.

(9) Black, smoking ruins marked the place that had been the *habitation* of her children.

(10) Nature never did betray the heart that loved her.

(11) This is the *house that* Jack built.

(12) Webster was a man that the country will remember with pride.

(13) There are occasions in life in which a great mind will live *years* of rapt enjoyment in a moment.

(14) The challenge *to combat* was given by *touching* the shield of the knight *whom* the challenger wished to encounter.

(15) Not a single region *that* the Indians can now call their own do the winds of the Atlantic fan.

(16) The atrocious crime of *being* a young *man*, *which* the honorable gentleman has with such spirit of decency charged upon mĕ, I shall attempt neither *to palliate* nor to deny.

(17) The *jingling* of the guineas helps the hurt *that* honor feels.

(18) It is not always easy *to make* one's self just *what* one wishes *to be*.

(19) He, beneath whose proud footstep Europe trembled, became a *prisoner* on the rock-bound isle of St. Helena.

(20) God seems *to have made him what* he was.

(21) A has three *times* as much money as B.

(22) He told me *what* I never heard of before.

(23) We are here *to hear what* you shall say.

(24) Infidelity gives nothing in return for *what* it takes away.

(25) The thief refused *to divide what* he had stolen.

(26) Such *as* are virtuous are happy.

(27) *As* many *as* came were satisfied.

(28) The son has the same indications *as* his father.

(29) *Whoever* wins may laugh.

(30) *Whatever* purifies the heart also fortifies it.

(31) Whoever seeks the good of others will himself be blest.

(32) He threatened *to shoot whoever* tried to stop him.

(33) Toward night the schoolmaster walked over to the cottage *where* his little friend *lay sick*.

(34) *There* was a *time when* I was free to roam.

(35) Youth is the time *when* the seeds of character are sown.

(36) It is the hour *when* lovers' vows
Seem sweet in every whispered word.

(37) At midnight, in his guarded tent,
The Turk lay dreaming of the hour
When Greece, her knee in suppliance bent,
Should tremble at his power.

(38) Deep in the wave is a coral grove
Where the purple mullet and the goldfish rove.

(39) *There* is a land of pure delight,
Where saints immortal reign.

(40) *Not* a soldier discharged his farewell shot
O'er the grave *where* our hero was buried.

(41) *And* all the air a solemn stillness holds,
Save where the beetle wheels his *droning* flight.

(42) She has sent for the lady she believed to be a governess.

(43) I knew the man, *whom* the general appointed captain.

(44) I saw the man, *who* we believed was sick.

(45) The boy closed the shutters, *which* darkened the room.

(46) He reached the station *just as* the train was starting.

(47) Gather roses *while* they bloom.

(48) Smile *whenever* you can.

(49) *While there is life there is hope.*

(50) The ship sailed *before* the sun rose.

(51) You may wait *till* the train arrives.

(52) You cannot reap *until after* you sow.

(53) Improve each shining moment *as* it flies.

(54) He has been here *ever since* his brother came.

(55) *Oft as* the morning dawns should gratitude ascend.

(56) He was *just about* to start *when* I called him *back.*

(57) She *has* not *been* here *since* you came.

(58) *When* I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy dies within me.

(59) Knowledge and timber should not be used much *till* they are seasoned.

(60) On Linden, *when* the sun was low,
All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

(61) Oh, what a tangled web we weave
When first we practice *to deceive!*

(62) He sleeps *wherever* night overtakes him.

(63) He builds a palace of ice *where* the torrents fall.

(64) *Where there's a will there's a way.*

(65) *As far as* the east is from the west, *so far* hath He removed our trangressions from us.

(66) Man cannot act a more perfidious part *than to use* his utmost efforts *to obtain* confidence *in order to deceive.*

(67) No ax had leveled the giant progeny of the crowded grove in *which* the fantastic forms of withered limbs that had been blasted and riven by lightning contrasted strangely with the verdant freshness of a younger growth of branches.

(68) *Whilst* the authors of all these evils were idly and stupidly gazing on this *menacing* meteor, which blackened their horizon, it suddenly burst, and poured down the whole of its contents upon the plains of the Carnatic.

(69) God, by *whose* kindness we live, *whom* we worship, and *who* created all things, is eternal.

(70) I knew *why* he was sent there, *how* he is to manage, *when* he is to leave, *where* he is to go next, and *who* is to return home with him.

(71) *When* misfortune comes, *when* the first prospects fade away, and *when* on either hand a listless desert stretches away to the sky, *then* do we realize true friendship.

(72) The world and affairs have shown me *that* one half of history is loose conjecture, and much of the rest is the writer's opinion. — *Wendell Phillips.*

(73) On the bosom of a river,
Where the sun unloosed his quiver,
And the starlight streamed forever,
Sailed a vessel, *light* and *free.*

(74) Once again the Greeks arise,
As in their country's noblest hours.

603. Discuss the Italicized Words. Diagram and Analyze the Sentences, giving Special Attention to the Clauses.

(1) The sun was now *resting* his huge *disk* upon the edge of the level ocean.

(2) The heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament showeth his handiwork.

(3) The *howling* of the wolf and the shrill *screaming* of the panther *were mingled* in nightly concert with the warwhoop of the savages.

(4) We *ought* not *to sacrifice* the sentiments of the soul *to gratify* the appetites of the body.

(5) You or he *is in fault.*

(6) *If* spring has no blossoms, autumn will have no fruit.

(7) The man that neglects his business will soon be *without business.*

(8) He reads *whatever* is instructive.

(9) And all our knowledge is *ourselves to know.*

(10) Milton has fine descriptions of morning, but not so many *as Shakespeare.*

(11) The woods are *hushed*, the waters rest,
The lake is dark and still.

(12) The king *to* Oxford sent a troop of horse;
The tories own no argument *but* force.

(13) The bounding steed you pompously bestride,
Shares with his lord the pleasure and the pride.

(14) I told you *who* he was.

(15) Aristotle tells *us that* a statue lies *buried* in a block of marble.

(16) Tell me not, in mournful numbers,
Life is *but* an empty dream.

(17) He looks *as if tired.*

(18) She is *as* hateful *as ever.*

(19) *Good morning, gentlemen.*

(20) Many *thanks for* your kindness.

(21) *As night to* stars, *woe luster* gives to man.

(22) Favors *to* none, to all she smiles extends;
Oft she rejects, but never once offends.

(23) Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadows *sweet with* hay.

(24) For this he shares a felon's cell,
The fittest earthly *type* of hell.

(25) Liberty taught *Demosthenes eloquence.*

(26) The pole was six *feet long.*

(27) The snow was a *foot deep.*

(28) They painted the house *white.*

(29) She is *without a home.*

(30) He made the *ax sharp.*

(31) *It* is possible *that we are wrong.*

(32) Let *it* be understood *that* I will pursue this course no longer.

(33) The characteristic peculiarity of the *Pilgrim's Progress* is *that* it is the only work of the kind *that* possesses a strong human interest.

(34) Breathes *there* the man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?

(35) *Ill* fares the land, to *hastening* ills a *prey,*
Where wealth accumulates and men decay.

(36) Poets lose half the praise they would have *got*
Were it but known *what* they discreetly blot.

(37) I have observed *that* in all ages women have been more careful *than men to adorn* the part of the head *that* we generally call the *outside.*

(38) How long was *it before* the man *came to? About three quarters of an hour.*

(39) The end *why* God has ordained faith is *that* his free grace might be glorified.

(40) But the *Son of Man* hath not *where to lay* his head.

(41) *For what* shall *it* profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul?

(42) The alarmed colonists believed *that* the yells of the savages mingled with every fitful gust of wind *that* issued from the interminable forests of the *West*.

(43) *From* beneath the flap of an enormous pocket of a soiled vest of *embossed* silk, heavily *ornamented* with tarnished silver lace, *projected* an instrument, *which*, from *being seen* in such martial company, *might have been* easily *mistaken* for some mischievous implement of war.

(44) The fashion plates of the magazines bear no striking resemblance to the humanity that we meet in the street.

(45) A proper description of the habit of chewing tobacco would exhaust all the filthy adjectives of the language, and spoil the adjectives themselves *for* further use.

(46) Did *it* ever occur to you *what* you are, *what* you were made for, and *whither* you are going?

(47) One of the greatest benefits *to be reaped* from great financial disasters is the *saving* of a large crop of young men.

(48) Let no man know by your dress *what* your business is.

(49) You will receive all sorts of the most excellent advice, but you must remember *that*, if you follow it, and it leads you into a profession *that* starves you, those that gave you the advice never feel *bound to give* you any money.

(50) You are *worth* to yourself *what* you are capable of enjoying; you are *worth* to society the *happiness* you are capable of imparting.

(51) The Indian knows *where* his friends are buried.

(52) We know not *when* his life departed.

(53) I heard *why* he declined the office.

(54) *How* you obtained the money so soon *is* a mystery to me.

(55) *That* the man confessed his guilt *when* no evidence was found against him *surprised* the court.

(56) *When* he gave the fatal blow *is* a matter of uncertainty.

(57) *Where* he concealed the body *is* a subject *that* is much discussed.

(58) The decision was *that the prisoner was guilty*.

(59) The general opinion is that Morgan was murdered.

(60) It is *surprising* that you care so *little* for the improvement of your mind.

(61) The question, *Are we a nation?* is now answered.

(62) Bursts the *moon* through glade and greenwood,
Soft the herald zephyrs play,
And the *waving* birches sprinkle
Sweetest incense on our way.

(63) I hear *that* the young prince is an excellent scholar.

(64) *To see* you here on such a day surprises me.

(65) Animals know *who* love them.
(66) We know *whom* we worship.
(67) Blessed is the man *whose* God is the Lord.
(68) He accepts *what* others reject.
(69) *After denying* the charge he withdrew in dignified displeasure.
(70) *After* the sun rose we continued our march.
(71) *Many* a despicable wretch lies under a marble monument *decorated* with a *flattering* epitaph.
(72) *When* Dante stood before the gates of Hell, he read over a portal's lofty arch the awful inscription: *All hope abandon, ye who enter here.*

REVIEW OF SENTENCES AND ELEMENTS.

604. Discuss the value of Analysis. Of Diagrams.

605. Outline of Elements

- As to Form
 - Simple (*a*)
 - Compound (*b*)
 - Complex (*c*)
- As to Use
 - Adjective (*d*)
 - Substantive (*e*)
 - Adverbial (*f*)
- As to Basis
 - First Class (*g*), word.
 - Second Class (*h*), phrase.
 - Third Class (*i*), clause.

(1) Define and illustrate, — (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*), (*f*), (*g*), (*h*), (*i*).

(2) Define and illustrate: —

adg, adh, adi; bdg, bdh, bdi; cdg, cdh, cdi.
aeg, aeh, aei; beg, beh, bei; ceg, ceh, cei.
afg, afh, afi; bfg, bfh, bfi; cfg, cfh, cfi.

(3) Referring to articles 85 and 86, illustrate: —

ad, ae, af, ag;
bd, be, bf, bg;
cd, ce, cf, cg.

(4) Referring to articles 92–94, illustrate: —

adf, adg, adh; bdf, bdg, bdh; cdf, cdg, cdh;
aef, aeg, aeh; bef, beg, beh; cef, ceg, ceh.

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